

# THE SCHOOL JOURNAL

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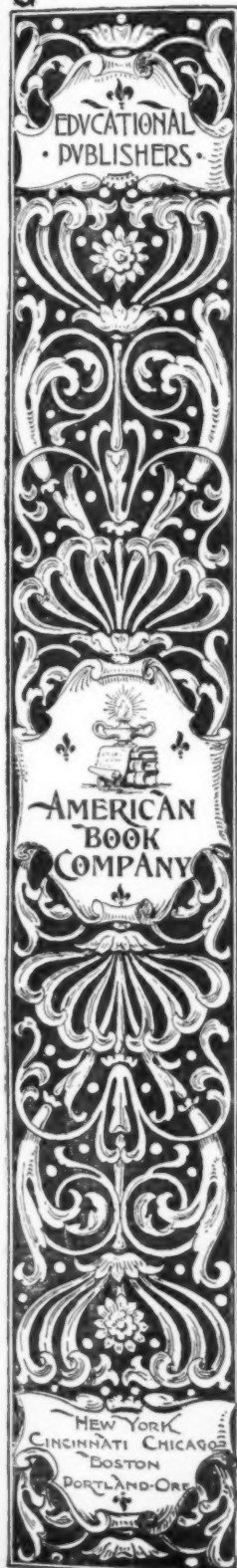
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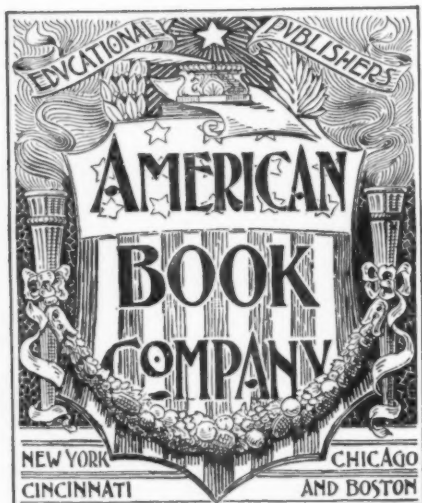
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# THE SCHOOL JOURNAL

A Weekly Journal of Education.

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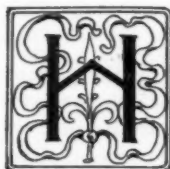
For the Week Ending June 30.

No. 26

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The business department of THE JOURNAL is on another page.

All letters relating to contributions should be addressed plainly, "Editors of SCHOOL JOURNAL." All letters about subscriptions should be addressed to E. L. KELLOGG & CO. Do not put editorial and business items on the same sheet.



HERBARTIAN pedagogics is at present on many tongues. "We are," as Dr. Boone says, "on the crest of a Herbartian wave." What the extent of its effects on American education will be only time can tell. But this much can be foreseen: The delusion that the school is a mere knowledge mill and the teacher a mere reciting post and drillmaster, which still has a firm hold on many people, will be forever exploded. *Educative Instruction* and an *Education School* are the watchwords of all followers of Herbart. Their voice will be heard in the land till the public mind has been fully impressed with the deep significance of these ideas. Indifferent school keeping must give way. A brighter day has begun to dawn. The wise teachers are hastening its advent by devotion to the study of child nature and pedagogy. The "foolish" ones who have taken "no oil in their vessels" will be aroused from their sleep and find the door of the school shut to them. "The school," they will be told, "is a house of education, but ye have made it a den of memory stuffing; go into the packing business if ye are good at that sort of work, but keep out of the school and make room for a professional teacher who is skilled in the art of teaching and has the right spirit."

In the present special issue of THE JOURNAL a prominent place has been given to Herbartian pedagogics, not only because it is considered the best and safest basis of scientific teaching, but primarily because it shows the educational tendencies of the present. Some of its leading expositors—American and English—have contributed articles setting forth in clear, concise, and spirited manner the claims, basis, and practical application of the system. This remarkable symposium is followed by contributions giving glimpses of the working plans of a few representatives of the progressive schools of the country. Besides there are articles discussing the most prominent of the leading issues of the day, a story of a case of discipline, general school news, correspondence touching subjects of great interest to teachers, reviews of some of the latest and most valuable books, an outline history of the educational work carried on by the publishers of THE JOURNAL, editorial paragraphs, pictures of some of the most recent contributions to school architecture, etc. The advertisements are deserving of a careful reading by all who want

to be informed concerning modern productions in which teachers are particularly interested; they illustrate the advance that has been made in school supplies, literature, art, etc. The whole number, from beginning to end, speaks of the educational work of the past year and gives glimpses of what the future will bring. It is a souvenir that, we hope, everyone at all interested in educational progress will value highly; it magnifies the teaching profession in the eyes of the public.

There are some solid reasons for the liberal support that THE SCHOOL JOURNAL receives from advertisers. The first is that they have found it to be a profitable investment to be represented in its pages. THE JOURNAL is the acknowledged leader of the educational press, teachers' papers, and a power in the educational world. Its readers are wide-awake people, eager to be informed, concerning everything that relates to their work. They take THE JOURNAL because, by giving them positive help and suggestions of real benefit, it has become indispensable to them.

Many thousands of leading teachers who are not yet regular subscribers to THE JOURNAL will receive a copy of this issue. We urge every one to examine it, page by page, with the utmost care. It represents careful planning on our part extending over a period of months. With each paper a subscription blank is sent, and we trust these will be returned by the hundreds properly filled out. If vacation interferes, send the blank with September date and the paper will be started then.

Be assured that the \$2.50 spent on a year's subscription will come back tenfold. THE JOURNAL is a paper no teacher can afford to be without, and not be a loser. And its special value is to the superintendents, principals, and school officers, who are looked to by these teachers for ideas.

Advertisements are written to suit the intelligence and tastes of the people whom they are to reach, and thus reflect the opinion the advertisers have of the readers of a paper. The advertisements of the leading firms in this issue exhibit, in a notable way, that the subscribers of THE JOURNAL are believed to be an unusually intelligent, inquiring, and discriminating class. THE JOURNAL has always aimed at high ground, and none but aspiring teachers support a paper that persistently labors for that end. Our most cordial thanks are extended to the advertisers in this special issue. In spite of the lagging business interests of the country, their hearty co-operation has enabled us to make this number as large and as varied as last year.



If the educational journals of this country have done nothing else beside compelling teachers to make education a subject of thought and study, they have not been published in vain. One who could justly write the history of the attempts to publish educational journals would do a great service. They have usually, not always, been the voice of one in the wilderness crying, Make straighter the path of education.

There have been, roughly speaking, about fifty years of educational journalism in America; the attempt was to express some truth relating to education; there was a latent feeling that demanded expression that education was a far more important subject than the public, or even the teachers, would admit; there was a consciousness that something was due the children that they did not get; there was later on a conception of law in the mental unfolding, and of a definite relation between this and the art of teaching.

Enormous efforts have been required to dislodge the idea that while scholarship was needed to give power to the teacher, a knowledge of the child was needed to give direction to this power. Nor is this work wholly done up to the present time. It may be roughly said that educational journalism has had for its object mainly the placing of child-growth in scientific aspects before the teacher.

There is no comparison between the proportion of teachers in city schools and the proportion in schools outside of the large cities who do not take an educational paper. Many, many teachers among those who work in the crowded wards of great manufacturing cities where, if anywhere, the problems of education must culminate in difficulty, say to our agents, "Oh, yes, if I took any paper I'd take THE JOURNAL, but I've no use for an educational paper;" while in the backwoods districts, where the salary is so low as to mean a really hand-to-mouth living of a very mean order, one of the main questions with the teacher is, which educational paper will do her the most good *since she can afford but one*.

Is it that the city teacher "knows it all"? If so, education is a smaller subject than we had supposed it to be. Is it that her problems are so hopeless that she doubts the ability of any one to help her solve them? This cannot be the reason, for those who do not take school papers, as a rule, never have taken them. Is it that her problems are all solved for her by the supervising officers who direct her work? We fear that this is the solution—too much, or wrongly applied, superintendence. These teachers feel that they will be told what to do and how and when to do it, and that no judgment whatever is required of them in the matter of regulating the children's study. The supervisors, in turn, feel that these inert teachers *must* be told what to do and how and when to do it, and that this official regulation of the work is their main duty. The deeper problems of education thus fall between two stools and are considered by no one.

If this is not true what is the explanation? If teaching is not more of a mechanical drive, more of a trade, in large cities than in smaller towns, villages, and rural districts, how are we to explain the fact that the publishers of educational journals and pedagogical books depend upon the more scattered rather than the more concentrated populations for their patronage, while pub-

lishers of text-books and mechanical appliances look to the larger cities? Could any fact better prove the superior progressiveness among rural teachers over their city cousins than their greater willingness to seek and pay for professional help and stimulation?

In this connection the momentous question again looms up—How much of the apparent indifference to educational history, philosophy, and current progress among city teachers is the product of an official assumption of the incapacity of the average teacher for an active interest in these subjects so fundamental to her work? A city superintendent said to us not long ago, "While we have such teachers we can have no great improvement in the system." We asked in return, "Have you tried the effect of rousing the teachers?" "Nothing there to rouse," said he, and changed the subject. We don't believe it. Every one of those teachers has a soul and there is no soul that cannot be roused on the subject of education.

There is a great deal of antipathy on the part of teachers to the very best method of teaching physiology—dissection. No one objects to preparing a piece of meat for the oven, but to gather pupils around a dissecting board and examine with them the physiological structure of a rabbit—! After all, what is the difference? The objection that killing must be done does not hold, for the market supplies studies in all needed variety. We are glad to see the prejudice against actual flesh study dying out. There is no way of learning about the animal structure like studying the animal at first hand, and all that is necessary for educational purposes can be taught from a dog, cat, or a rabbit as well as from the human subject. After the vital organs and nerve and muscle fibers and bony articulations of one of these quadrupeds have been examined, charts and models of the human structure, manikins, etc., can be better understood.

"The Spiritual Side of Bicycling" is the heading of an article in a recent periodical. There is a spiritual side to all exhilarating exercise and to all forms of recreation that take one out into nature's haunts. The wonderful advantages of the bicycle to the seeker after oxygen, landscapes, and cheerfulness are not to be passed over by an educational paper. It realizes one's dreams of treading on air—almost one's dreams of flying. Its great swiftness, taking one past the impudent gazer and out of unpleasant surroundings before they have time to be noticed, seems to create for the rider a psychical atmosphere all his own, as free as the ozone-leavened air he can so quickly gain upon it. Its obedience, its faithfulness, its few wants, make it a more desirable steed than any ridden by cavalier of old. One learns to love it as a living companion, and a servant humble and true. The light-weight wheels now made render hill climbing the least of labors, while the descent when the crest is past is glorious. The pneumatic tire and spring seat minimize the jolting over rough roads, and the occasional spin along some smooth and level stretch realizes the fulness of life—and the mere memory of such a spin is exhilaration in itself. Happy and sad personal experiences build up the soul's strength by which all teaching is done. Riding the bicycle, then, may make one a better teacher

## 1874—The Past Twenty Years—1894.

By the EDITOR.

In June, 1874, the present editor took charge of the *NEW YORK SCHOOL JOURNAL*. Having given much time and thought to the investigation of educational questions; in fact, having devoted himself to this entirely for the twenty years previous, his governing purpose was to improve the methods employed in the school-room. It seemed to him only needful to point out better methods and they would at once be employed. Good and true friends who looked on felt greatly concerned, and advised a different course. "The teachers won't thank you to tell them there are better ways," was the general form their advice took. And this proved to be true. The number who wanted to know of better methods was small in those days.

The subscribers to *THE SCHOOL JOURNAL* then and since were among the city, state, and county superintendents, principals, institute conductors, members of school boards, normal graduates, and a class that may be called "inquirers" (thanks to God, the inquirers always exist). But among the vast rank and file there were those who were destined to occupy higher places, and they wanted more light on education. In 1877 began the publication of the monthly *TEACHERS' INSTITUTE*, at \$1.00, and it became very popular. The same thought pervaded *THE INSTITUTE*; every number contained the urgent appeal, "Advance to higher educational ground."

At the very outset the teacher was urged to own and read one book at least on the business by which he gained his living. Scarcely a number of *THE JOURNAL* but presented this request in one form or another. It is wonderful subscribers did not weary of seeing it; but no protest was heard. Cases are remembered where the reason given for reading a book was, "You seem to feel so bad that we don't own a book." There being a scarcity of educational books, with much doubt Joseph Payne's *Lectures on Teaching* were put to press in a cheap way; it was feared an edition of 1,000 would never be sold. This shows how few books on education were bought by the teachers in those days. This was the first of a list of 125 books that have been issued.

But help in this effort to diffuse knowledge concerning education was to come from an unsuspected quarter. In 1875 the school committee of Quincy, Mass., had engaged Francis W. Parker to superintend the schools, and he proceeded to exemplify the methods that would be adopted when teachers had studied education. News of the revolution that had set in spread. Prof. John Murphy, of Fishkill (a veteran teacher, but still penetrable by the truth) visited Quincy, and his letters in *THE JOURNAL* and *INSTITUTE* created an interest that cannot be well explained. In spite of the "Oh, pshaw!" that were heard the teachers believed in the Quincy Methods. One institute conductor who decried these methods cut out the letters of Prof. Murphy from *THE SCHOOL JOURNAL*, pasted them in a book, and read them to the teachers as his own.

The impulse given to the study of education by Col. Parker was tremendous. It was equal to the influence of Horace Mann in his day. What a debt this country owes to him! No other man since 1875 has exerted such a powerful influence in the educational world. The reporting of Col. Parker's work at Quincy in *THE JOURNAL* and *THE INSTITUTE*, the publishing of Col. Parker's "Talks on Teaching," and Miss Patridge's "Quincy Methods" enabled *THE JOURNAL* to present not only recommendations that different methods be used in the school-room, but the better methods themselves, under the title "the new education." A reaction had set in; a large number began to believe there was something more to be learned about education. A moderate buying of educational books began; there was some encouragement to publish such books; gradually a new day dawned; a majority (apparently) had voted, "We ought to read and study upon education."

The main effort of the editor was to carry on as best

he could a normal school for that increasing number of earnest people who were anxious to teach in accordance with educational principles. This brought him in contact with young men who were penetrated by the soundness and reasonableness of the argument, that if they would occupy higher places they must be fitted to take them. This necessitated the preparing of a circular letter of advice telling what books to read on education. But this not seeming sufficient, a little monthly sheet, "The Professional Teacher," was issued, its name being changed afterward to *EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS*. This, of course, can only be desired by students of education; the number cannot be large; yet it is, thank God, larger every year. This magazine discusses plainly the history, principles, methods, and civics of education; it is designed for use in normal schools, reading circles, teachers' meetings, institutes, and for self-instruction.

Among the early suggestions was that the pupils should know the great events happening in the world. It was never expected to undertake the work of noting these down and putting them in shape for the school-room. But it was demanded by teachers and a little monthly paper for teachers and pupils entitled *OUR TIMES* is published, and is very popular.

The first efforts for improving the methods of teaching began in the primary schools; the poorest teaching was done there, as is well known. Requests for primary methods came in an increasing rate. In 1890 a supplement to *THE SCHOOL JOURNAL* was issued once a month. It has seemed best to issue a separate paper with the title *THE PRIMARY SCHOOL*—price, \$1.00. It is only another of the efforts that have been made to diffuse a knowledge of the best methods of teaching.

Among the disheartening features twenty years ago was the utter want of faith in educational journalism by the advertising public. Journals had come and gone but the feeling was prevalent that the teachers were a set of people who did not read their own journals and were not interested in what was going on in the world. This argument was used repeatedly by advertisers. But the editor assured them that his mission was to lift the teachers out of this state and to cause common sense as well as science to rule in the school room; he pointed to articles that aimed at these things. He well remembers the day a publisher who became a constant patron said, "It is our duty to aid the effort you are making; the schools are in a low condition; the teachers need enlightenment." It was the feeling that *THE JOURNAL* was aiming at a higher plane of education that gave it a steady and increasing patronage. A feeling of profound thankfulness is due to those first advertisers who appreciated efforts whose value the teachers themselves did not realize.

Having a noble object in view, having aroused the teachers from their supineness, having the confidence of the advertisers, *THE JOURNAL* rose to a place of commanding influence in the educational world. The constant effort has been to urge the employment of modes of teaching based on mental development. It came about unexpectedly that we were often asked to recommend teachers who wrought from this point of view. A bureau of education, an office to supply teachers of this sort, was established, and has undertaken to come into relation with school boards and principals who desire scientific teaching. The various offshoots of the primary effort have been noted; they all aim at the same great object.

To carry on this work in conjunction with Mr. A. Flanagan (who manages the Chicago office) it is found necessary to possess the names of all the public and private school teachers in the United States, reports of cities, catalogues of private schools, etc., etc. Our work is briefly this:

1. To bring *THE SCHOOL JOURNAL* to school boards, city and county superintendents, principals, institute conductors, normal graduates, and advancing teachers.
2. To bring *THE INSTITUTE* before the rank and file, assistant teachers in city and town schools, and country teachers—this last a vast class.



3. To bring EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS before earnest students of education—a steadily increasing class.

4. To bring THE PRIMARY SCHOOL before the primary teacher, a class that has the heaviest and most important task of all.

5. To put in the hands of the teachers a catalogue of books on education and persuade them to purchase. (Our list of book buyers numbers over 20,000.)

6. To bring OUR TIMES before the teachers that they and their pupils may be intelligent concerning current events.

As outlined above so extensive is the field of work undertaken by the firm of E. L. Kellogg & Co. that their establishment has become the educational headquarters of this country.

It is quite possible that the above outline of the work of the past twenty years may seem to be egotistic; it is not really so. Had the sole effort been to publish a paper, failure would have followed; the main effort was to initiate a reform in methods of teaching. The editor is fortunate in having lived to see that reform in operation. Others, too, have labored; pages could be taken in giving the names of those who have wrought to bring in a day of better things during these twenty years. His effort was simply to show the part THE JOURNAL has played during these years. A new generation is on the field and they will want to know how these better times came about. AMOS M. KELLOGG.

### 1894-1895.

During the past year THE SCHOOL JOURNAL, working along the eight practical lines named at the head of our School-Room department, has presented:

Suggestive reading lessons, showing how to handle the material of the school reader and of general literature in class so as to awaken the most thought and produce the best reading.

Sketches of leading English and American authors, each given in the month containing his birthday.

Model lessons and general suggestions for the teaching of composition and grammar.

Model lessons in ethics, showing how to utilize incidents of school and home, and material of daily study for the inculcation of moral sentiments.

A series of school-room talks on physiology, covering all the main divisions of the human system studied in schools, illustrated in some cases with cuts cross-lined for easy transfer to the blackboard and dwelling upon the principles of hygiene.

Directions for physical exercises such as are used in the most approved systems.

A series of articles on history teaching, grouping events by centuries and utilizing the valuable device of tabulation.

Model lessons in history and anecdotes from history and biography, usually related to the month in which such anecdotes were published.

A series on child life in our own and other lands, illustrated with full-page pictures.

A series on geography teaching, giving method and material for the most modern and scientific conduct of this subject in intermediate grades.

Plant, animal, and mineral lessons, completing (with geography) the round of studies included under one heading "Earth."

A series of articles on arithmetic teaching, designed to help young teachers to the best arrangement and the clearest and most forceful presentation of the successive branches of this subject.

Other number lessons and suggestions and devices for number teaching.

A series in science teaching for intermediate grades, made practical, with clear and full presentation and cheap apparatus.

Lessons on common things, prepared by request, and giving a wealth of suggestion as to material and method.

Articles on school-made apparatus, showing what pupils can do for themselves and for their fellow-pupils under the direction of a live teacher.

A series of drawing lessons adapted to teachers not under regular direction in this department of work.

Lessons in penmanship, including a presentation of the vertical system.

Miscellaneous articles in all of the eight leading departments.

Supplementary exercises for Friday afternoons and for holiday use, authors' days, closing celebration, etc.

A special primary number issued monthly, in which all of the above departments were represented on a scale suited to first and second year work.

Pedagogical articles relating to all of the eight lines of school-room work.

Other pedagogical articles related to current events and debated questions in the school world, here and abroad, and expounding the philosophy and history of teaching to student readers.

School news with editorial comment, mainly telling what live teachers are at work, where they are working, what they are doing, and the nature of their results.

A page in each number of editorial paragraphs upon significant incidents in school progress and educational principles.

Correspondence, in which an endeavor has been made to help teachers over their difficulties, and show them where mistakes are likely to impair their work.

Descriptive book notices, giving a good notion of the contents of the principal publications offered to the attention of teachers during the year.

Most of these attractions were announced; some were not; some were continuations of the regular features of THE SCHOOL JOURNAL.

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL JOURNAL proved so popular that in June it was separated from its connection with the regular JOURNAL and launched upon an independent career as THE PRIMARY SCHOOL. Hereafter the work of the lower grades in the regular school-room subjects will be scattered through the issues of THE JOURNAL, instead of being concentrated in a single monthly number.

Otherwise the general plan of THE JOURNAL will be continued during another year. The brightest features will animate its several departments, and the aim will be to be even more practical in suggestion and sentiment. THE JOURNAL realizes that the new education is on trial in this country, and that every travesty by a faddist or failure by an unskilled novice in teaching hazards its speedy adoption. It will therefore strive, with all the power that in it lies, to preach and teach only those things that have been tried and not found wanting, and to teach and preach in such a way that fresh trials may be made in that full, clear light of thorough understanding which shall prevent failure through misconception.

Our special new attractions will be:

1. A series of live reading lessons by a live teacher, illustrating the principle of concentration as it may be applied by the ordinary teacher in the ordinary graded school, teaching from the ordinary school reader. Graded from third to seventh year.

2. A series of live arithmetic articles, by another live teacher, taking up the subject by topics and showing the most economical methods of disposing of each in turn. Graded from third to seventh year.

3. Scheduled outlines for work in physiology.

4. A unique series of lessons on the continents, taking each up in turn and treating it with a life and thoroughness that has made geography a passion with the author's pupils, who before hated it.

5. Some live blackboard work, in a series of chalk talks.

6. A careful series of short, illustrated articles on penmanship teaching, by a specialist.

7. A system of drawing taught by a successful city supervisor of this subject.



## The Great Obstacle.

At a teachers' institute in Suffolk county, a lecture had been delivered by Prof. Crittenden (of precious memory) and it was followed by questions. One of the teachers asked, "What is the obstacle in the way of realizing such a condition in the schools as you portray?" The lecturer said, "I will make a visible reply." He asked all who had not taught to rise and be counted. When they sat down he asked all who had taught one year to rise and be counted; then those who had taught two years. The great majority had not taught three years.

He then asked, "How many entered on teaching, only intending to stay until something turns up? Come, let us be honest." A conversation ensued and then the first questioner asked, "How can the obstacle of untrained teachers teaching for short terms be removed?" Prof. Crittenden's reply was: "Only when the people can be made to see it is for their interest to have trained and permanent teachers." This, from his remarks, he believed would require a long time. But he impressed upon his hearers that it was their duty to train themselves for their work. No matter whether the people demanded it or not. The discussion made a profound impression upon the institute.

The point of weakness in our educational economy is that no provision is made for giving training to nine-tenths of those who teach. Normal schools exist and furnish about one-tenth of those who teach, but the rank and file of the army of teachers have hardly heard of a normal school. Institutes exist, but they do not train teachers; they deal in principles; what the rank and file need is methods.

That the people do not demand trained teachers will be conceded; but is this a good reason for the state department of instruction to bring forward when county training schools are suggested? Any one who knows the history of the normal schools will remember that they were not demanded by the people, they were firmly opposed. In Massachusetts men of liberal purses were obliged to aid their establishment; in New York they were opposed by the teachers as well as the people. To remove the great obstacle of untrained persons doing what only trained persons can do, there must be heroic action on the part of the state department of instruction.

If State Supt. Crooker, of New York, would authorize ten state institutes to be held in July and August for four, or, better, six weeks, he would contribute to remove the greatest obstacle in the way of educational progress. The pupils in these institutes should be divided into three classes—holders of first, second, and third-grade certificates, constituting the first, second, and third classes respectively. Those who have never taught should be put in a preparatory class and be allowed a third-grade certificate temporarily at the end of the term.

In 1895, double this number of institutes would be held in the summer for four or six weeks. This is substantially the plan Minnesota has decided upon; it makes it possible to look forward five years and see all of the teachers possessing training.

This obstacle will not remove itself; the people will not remove it except in some village or small town (like Batavia), where the board of education may, under the influence of some influential superintendent, resolve to have none but normal graduates. Nor will the teachers remove it. The act of the state department of instruction in New York is significant in enforcing attendance on the institutes. The teachers will apparently make no more preparation than they are obliged to; many of them like to have only third-grade certificates demanded. The old Quaker said there was a great deal of human nature in women. There is a great deal of human nature in the persons who propose to be teachers; they will make larger preparation if it be demanded and not otherwise.

The obstacle of non-training is so great that all state superintendents should determine to remove

it. It stands in the way especially of the rural schools; they cannot get normal graduates; they suffer the untold affliction of holders of third-grade certificates. No wonder the farmers leave the farms, and give as a reason that they want their children to go to better schools; they feel the inadequacy of these untrained teachers.

A further step may be taken,—the state has no right to put the stamp of *adequacy* on a paper held by an untrained teacher. How does the state know she can teach? The normal graduate is trained in teaching in most schools for a whole year, in some for two years. The state (through its county officials) gives the stamp of adequacy to persons of whom it has no knowledge that they will teach successfully. Such a thing was tolerable fifty years ago; it is intolerable today. It should end at once.

It will be objected that the state cannot bear the cost of training all its teachers. This is easily answered: (1) let the state open the schools and say no licenses will be granted without training, and (2) let a moderate charge be made for attendance at the training schools; (3) let the money spent on one weak institute be spent on these summer training schools.

Any neglect to take this step of opening county training schools shows the educational department of a state unable to comprehend the necessities of the times. All the criticisms of education with which the papers are filled, are directed towards this absence of a knowledge of the principles and practice of education. Once this ignorance was winked at, but the time has come when it will be demanded of a state department. "How many untrained teachers have you licensed?" This can only meet with a humiliating answer. How much of the vast funds of the Empire state are spent yearly on untrained teachers? If one-half, then the children have only one-half the opportunity they might have.

## What is Cram?

By ELLEN E. KENVON.

The most zealous teachers need to ask themselves this question. There is cram in the kindergarten, cram in the college, cram in the church, cram in the home, cram in the best as well as in the poorest primary school.

The most pernicious cram of all is that practiced on the child at the earliest age—nursery cram. Its exceeding viciousness is due to three facts: 1. It affects human growth at the point of least resistance, thus taking deepest hold of all. A wise old pope, said "Give me the child until he is five years of age and I care not who takes him afterward." 2. It is practiced mainly for the selfish purposes of those who have charge of the children and seek this easiest means of managing them. Forces unethical in nature cannot fail to be unethical in effect, when exerted upon the sensitive organism of a child, though the result may not be seen for many years. 3. It deals mainly with lies told the child for temporary purposes, in utter recklessness of the fact that sooner or later he must learn their falsity with something of a shock to his moral growth.

The absorbent nature of the child between cradle and school is ready for all good or all evil. It cannot take directly any great natural laws or moral truths, but it can assimilate thousands of the facts in which those laws and truths are rolled up. To bring it into contact with these facts and leave the rest to the laws of assimilation is the part of the teacher; but the nurse-maid leads it away from "the ugly worm" and tells it "a policeman is coming." The fear of the outer world occasioned in early childhood by tales of policemen, and kidnappers exists long afterward as an obstruction to the growth of humanitarian sentiment. The teacher who subsequently tries to awaken a sense of the brotherhood of man has this hidden rock in her way and must do much skilful questioning to find it out. And the

bugaboo in the dark corner that frightens the child into silence at bedtime, though it may be unlearned as a fact (and to the child's moral cost), has its evil effect in the nerve tissue not to be easily, if ever, recovered from.

The management of the Santa Claus myth, beautiful as it is, and taught as much for the children's pleasure as for that of the adults who keep it up, is often such as to cause moral disturbance when it is unlearned as a fact. "Mamma said there was a Santa Claus and now I know there isn't any. I don't believe there's any God, either." This is the just punishment of devout parents who make untrue statements to their children. The bad management of this myth is due to a lack of understanding of the nature of myth in general and of human history.

In primitive days, when mysteries arose, man had to solve them for himself. He had no misleading trusted guardian at hand to give him false explanations. He had no fallen angel to condemn when explanations proved false. If he encouraged bright fictions of his own imagination, only to resign them later with pain, he had none to blame for telling him what was not true.

The Santa Claus myth is of a piece with the special providence idea, which is probably nearly as old as the human imagination itself. The very young child finds what he wants within his reach and accepts it as a windfall. Later, the question "How did it come there?" arises and the mystery is deepened by the suggestion from mamma, "I wonder if Santa Claus can have put it there," or the statement from another child, "Santa Claus brought it." The "I wonder," from mamma, leaves her non-committal, and does no harm. The confident statement from the child is made in honest belief and does no harm. The romance lives a year and Santa Claus is expected again. He is talked about as a mysterious, semi-earthly personage, of superhuman powers, and universal loves. Pictures show what he looks like, and his rubicund visage expresses the happiness he gets out of happiness-giving. But there are pictures of Jack Frost, too, and he is only the wind. Santa Claus brings the Christmas tree and Jack Frost the fairy lace upon the window pane. So the children say—and the adults join in the talk and lend themselves to the wonderful tale, but with an air of mystery that at the same time enhances it and leaves them free to accept and countenance any more likely theory that may subsequently offer.

If they are wise, they waive explanations, avoid saying "Santa Claus is a man and looks like that," and so manage the whole question that the worst charge childhood can ever bring against them will be "You knew it all the time!" To which reply can be made "Yes, dear, but it wasn't time for you to know. Mamma wanted you to have your dream out, because it was a pleasant one. You enjoyed it and so does baby brother. Do not spoil his dream. He will learn in time who old Boreas is, and what the pictures of Father Time with his scythe are meant to represent and that the moisture is on the window pane and Jack Frost is only the cold that turns it to ice crystals and that Santa Claus is the happy myth that stands for the love of parents and friends at Christmas time. But it is too soon to teach him these things now. Let him find them out for himself, by thinking, as you did, and then he will understand them better."

Thus the question, "Who is Santa Claus?" may introduce the whole noble subject of mythology and acquaint the child, through his own vivid experiences, with those of primitive man who had a feeble start in thought and less wealth of intelligent suggestion about him and who, therefore did not get on so fast. Thus, too, it may lead through higher speculations, to the eventful question, "Who is God?" and to loftier conceptions than the concrete images cherished by those crude minds that gave to the Infinite all the limitations of personality.

It would have been cram to tell the child that Santa Claus was a man and came down the chimney. It would

have been cram to explain the myth too early. Each day hath its own understanding. Hide not the facts, but leave the understanding to work upon them. The facts are that the gifts are there, and the air is burdened with festivity. Perhaps the jingle of sleighbells was heard in the night. Perhaps Santa Claus appeared in a dream. The children say he comes. The grown folks don't seem to know how the presents came unless he brought them. It is a mystery which the child himself is willing to prolong; a problem in which the scientific imagination, seeking realities, consents to be held in check by the romantic imagination, seeking poetic fictions. Let it remain until the understanding acquires strength to gently and lovingly dispose of it.

Next to the immoral cram of the policeman-bugaboo type, the most harmful perhaps is that practiced by the zealot. Some new conviction assumes the importance of a great and all-embracing truth, to the believer, moving him to enthusiasm, and his first impulse is to teach it to some little child. There are many chances that the conviction is wholly wrong. There are many more that its truth is not so broadly inclusive as he thinks, and that he might give more bias than poise in imparting it. There are several that the child has not reached the point of reciprocity for this truth, or any point from which he may be easily led up to it, and will merely commit a statement or two. There are even a few that the child is intellectually beyond the zealot, but will accept his statement as authoritative because that of an adult. The leaning faith of children, even upon weaker reasoners than themselves, should appeal to all that is chivalric in the older ones who guide them, and should protect them from cram in every form. It does not, however, and the most persistent cram of all is that of the creed-monger. The soul of dogma is bigotry. Like every other spirit, good and evil, it seeks to perpetuate itself and seizes upon the children. At first its victims, afterward its tools, always its victims, the children of men come under the forming touch, miss the fulness of life, and trammel one another. The narrower the church the more convinced it is that there is no religion outside its dogmas, and the more remorselessly it administers those dogmas in what it calls "the religious education of the young." In fact, religious education is so confused in the popular mind with dogma teaching that no adequate conception of religion and religious education has been permitted to grow, and the only salvation of the people from the sectarianism of the churches is in the common school, where all sects bar out all other sects, and it is beginning to be understood that a religion of morality can be taught. Crude and unscientific as the teaching of the common school has been, that of the church and Sunday-school has been still more crude and unscientific, and the comparison has weakened the force of sectarian teaching. The Sunday-school is at last stirring with a dawning realization that cram is not teaching, and better methods are beginning to promise something of future breadth. Our valued cotemporary the *Sunday-School Times*, from whose columns we often quote pedagogical tid-bits, quite equal to any found in our school periodicals, sets forth this tendency in an earnest and consistent effort at the elevation of the teaching practice of Sunday-schools.

There is cram in the kindergarten, the very cradle of the new education. Is there not, kindergartners? Do you, in every particular, respect the spontaneity of the child-soul in which your great leader taught you to believe? Do you never hurry the child to conceptions and conclusions which he could not get directly from the facts before him? Do you never mistake dogma for truth, and give him statement in lieu of experience? Do you never abuse your privilege as interpreter, leading the child-mind in the wake of your own, instead of getting behind and following whither it leadeth? Do you never assume that you have final truth in your possession and give it to the child much as it exists in your own mind? Do you never hasten the development of a faculty by hothouse culture, in dread lest it may not develop in the natural order of growth? Are you in all things



consistent in practice with your own beautiful theories?

The uneven development of the primary school shows the best contrast of cram and teaching offered by any institution where either is prosecuted. There are schools close to the heart of civilization where the alphabet method of teaching reading has never been interrupted and schools next door to these where nature's facts and materials are laid before the child in such a way that he teaches himself to observe, to think, to express; to read, to write, and to cipher. In the school-houses of the remotest rural districts the same contrast is to be found.

The proverbial cram of the grammar schools, high schools, and colleges is in great part made unavoidable by the cram perpetrated in the grades below. There is much to be done and only a definite amount of time to do it in. The children are not prepared to apprehend; they must therefore swallow the hay now and chew the cud after they leave school. If man is a ruminating animal, as some say he is, this ought to be all right. Results show, however, that he does not always ruminate.

What is cram? It is an attempt to teach in haste what can be taught only by giving the pupil time to work out his own processes. Sometimes it consists in forcing him up to labored conceptions and conclusions which are but feeble glimpses to him and leave no permanent effect upon the mind except that "Jordan am a hard road to travel." Sometimes it consists in giving the child words to *con* in utter indifference to whether he gains any of the thought or not. Sometimes it arises from inadequate conceptions of mind development and mechanical notions of education. Sometimes it arises from laziness on the part of the teacher or supervising officer. Sometimes it arises from the necessity, in a graded system, of covering a scheduled course in a scheduled time with or without due preparation in previous classes. Sometimes it arises from a temptation on the part of an earnest but unpedagogical teacher, to secure to her pupils certain convictions upon which she herself sets great store.

The road leading most directly away from cram lies through the study of evolution. The teacher who is a profound evolutionist most realizes the futility of cram (except for examination purposes); she most fully and firmly believes in the doctrine of self-salvation; she comes nearest to a knowledge of how civilization has come out of barbarism; she knows that child development follows race development in its order, though more swiftly through civilization's helps; she is best qualified to recognize the stage of development through which a child is passing and to meet him upon his own emotional and intellectual plane; she has the best clue to the psychology of his conduct and therefore to remedial and developing agents; she accepts educational law without argument and without elucidation—to her it is axiomatic; she is likely to be conscientious and devoted, with a steady enthusiasm that does not get in its own way, because her study of mankind's long struggle has made her sympathetic and patient; she is less of an experimentalist than her neighbor, because the principles of development are her working property.

"The less means the elementary school has for mental culture proper, the more economical it must be in their use—i. e., the less dare it destroy the effect of these means through the mere mechanical work of reading and writing. \* \* \* The development of the pupil's conceptions, the broadening of his mental range through the geography of the country and the topography of the region where he lives, together with knowledge of the natural products and the intercourse of men that live there; exercises in mental arithmetic and measuring of lines and planes (after the manner of 'object lessons'),—all this sets the elementary school a great task, beside which it cannot at all think of merely teaching reading and writing as rapidly as possible."

—Herbart.

## The Two Sides of a Case of Discipline.

The one thing that had been impressed on the mind of Esther Townsend was that the teacher must be sure to "make the children mind." Her father, having been a school trustee, had convictions as to what the teacher should accomplish, and he had simmered down his philosophy concerning the matter into a sentence which he repeated thousands of times: "If the children won't mind a teacher he can't do them any good."

With this embedded firmly in her mind Esther took charge of the school in "Deacon Gaylord's deestrick." The children were from the farm-houses and disposed to obedience, and so the first week passed very pleasantly. On the second Monday morning Alvah Stebbins entered the school; he was a big boy of fifteen years with short cut hair that stood upright and defiantly, and caused Esther to tremble all over. He had black, restless eyes that seemed to penetrate to her soul and read there the fear she felt. She immediately concluded she did not like his looks; he did not appear to be one that would yield implicit obedience to her commands; he seemed to be a law to himself.

The rule "No whispering in school" had been well enforced the first week; in fact, the chief mental force of the teacher had been employed in the effort to cause the pupils to sit still and study. The slightest indication of an attempt to whisper to a seat-mate was nipped in the bud by a tap of her small ruler on the desk; it was an intimation that the teacher was a mind reader, had penetrated the wicked design forming in the mind and rising to the surface, unconscious it may be to the pupil herself; the sound of the ruler caused it to settle to the bottom again.

Alvah took his seat in an awkward way and produced a book and began to be busy with its pages. As if a new thought had entered his mind he turned to Maria Townsend, his near neighbor in the school as she was when they were at home, for their farms joined, and in a low whisper asked, "Where's the lesson?" Esther was looking straight at him and witnessed this infraction of her most important rule; she wished she had been looking the other way and had not seen it. It did not occur to her to tell him there was a law against whispering; she must take it for granted that he knew it. So she commanded her voice and courageously rose to the importance of the occasion. "Alvah, you are whispering; come and write your name on the blackboard."

A certain space on the blackboard had been set apart for the names of criminals of this sort; it was headed WHISPERING LIST. Alvah heard the command, glanced hurriedly to the place pointed out, and then let his eyes fall on his book; he was apparently deep in study.

Again the command was given. Alvah looked at her steadily a moment then gave his attention to his book. Esther was at a loss as to the proper procedure. He looked so big, so stout, and determined!

She did not penetrate into the state of the boy's mind; nor could she read the conclusions of the other pupils. They looked at her mainly, she could see; they seemed to understand Alvah well enough. She wished they would look at him and show horror at his disobedience; but they did not.

The maxim of her father, "A teacher who can't make the scholars mind has no business in a school-house," repeated itself over and over. Here she was with a scholar that would not mind. She thought over the happiness in the little school-house in her native district. She remembered an awful day, on which the teacher, a powerful man, set out to make one of the big boys sit between two of the girls for the misdeed of eating an apple and the frightful scenes that ensued; and how finally the larger boys rose and pushed the master out of the school; and how he looked in the window and they were afraid he would get in and kill them all.

With a trembling heart she decided to go on with her duties, but secretly bewailing to herself her signal failure as a teacher. Class after class came up to recite;



she was conscious they looked at her curiously. Now and then she saw that Alvah gave her a glance and then turned to his books with apparent industry. The look was not of defiance, nor of scorn; he seemed to be quietly ignoring the command, as one that might do for a smaller pupil, but not for him. But Esther was too conscientious to require the small pupils to obey a rule, but let the larger ones do as they pleased.

The morning hours finally passed, preparation was made for the noon recess. Esther observed that Alvah had all his books piled up on his desk and she surmised he was intending to leave the school. Some teachers would have said, "Good riddance" in their inmost souls but not so this teacher. She knew the school was looked forward to by many a boy as the means by which he would make something of himself. She well remembered at home how they mourned over their lost opportunities when it was found the teacher was a poor one. Another year to wait!

She dismissed the pupils and as the boy was about to rise she mustered courage to say, "Alvah, you may remain." When all the rest had gone she called him forward and expressed her sorrow that he had broken a rule.

"I wasn't doing anything wrong," said Alvah, stoutly.

This was a new aspect of the case; it seemed to her that every infraction of a teacher's rule was a great wrong; it instantly occurred to her that she could not justly say he was doing wrong.

"I just asked where the lesson was," he added, "I wasn't whispering; I don't want to whisper, I haven't no time for that."

She had him put his armful of books on her table; she began turning them over; there was an algebra.

"Do you understand algebra?" she asked. She had studied it at the academy and liked it very much.

"I've studied it some, but I haven't got along very well. Deacon Gaylord said you understood it and so I came to school."

This revealed a most interesting condition of things to the teacher. Could he be so bad and pursue this hard study at home instead of reading a story book? She began to look at him more closely; he looked like most farmers sons; she knew just how they looked; she had been brought up among them. She took a sudden interest in the lad because he was like herself—a student. How often she had pored over hard problems in the arithmetic! How many hours she had spent on one equation in algebra!

But then this disobedience. It was fixed in her mind that if she let this big boy evade her rule against whispering it would appear that she was "partial." Now in the district school it is a great crime for the teacher to be "partial;" old and young, rich and poor, children of the trustees and others, must obey one rule. Would not the younger plead that she had let Alvah Stebbins whisper?

But she felt there were two sides to this case; she could not escape the conclusion that she must sit as an impartial judge and consider what Alvah had to say. She must first of all be just.

The boy looked her squarely in the eye conscious that his intent was right and stated his side of the matter.

"If I was a teacher I wouldn't make a rule about whispering, 'cause you sometimes whisper when you are trying to do just right."

"But children will whisper all the time if there is no rule."

"Yes, they'll whisper rule or no rule; but the rule makes them watch to see if a teacher is looking and I think it makes them underhanded; anyhow the underhanded ones will whisper."

The discussion was evidently getting on school management, a matter of which Esther knew but little. Alvah seemed to have arrived at some practical conclusions she had not considered. But would it do to give way? What excuse could she have to give the school? How could she justify herself to the other scholars? A thought struck her.

"Alvah, you have no objection to writing your name now?"

"Yes, ma'am; I wasn't doing wrong, you mean that to be a list of those who are mean and troublesome, and I ain't one of that kind. I don't want my name up there. I never gave any trouble in school before. If I'm going to be a trouble to you I had better leave now."

The case had now arrived at such a pitch that tears streamed down the teacher's cheeks; she sympathized with this boy: she felt he was right. But what should she do? She was a righteous judge and it did not cost her as much of an effort as she had anticipated to say:

"Alvah, I am going to give up that rule, I don't think you did wrong. I want you to stay here. I will teach you algebra and do all I can for you."

When the school assembled the teacher informed them that Alvah had asked a question about the lesson, and was not whispering wrongfully; that she had concluded to give up this rule, but that she expected none to whisper except about their lessons and to get permission by holding up the forefinger in the air.

Somehow Esther felt saddened. The high imperial throne she had occupied as a maker of rules was gone; a revolution had quietly taken place in her school-room something like that of 1688 in England; there it had been effected by taking the kingly head of Charles from his shoulders; here she had agreed to make laws such as her subjects would agree were right.

What would the people say? She feared they might say she was afraid of Alvah, but she knew she wasn't; she respected him for his manliness. She felt somewhat humiliated that a valuable lesson must be taught her by a pupil; for the more she thought over the matter the more she saw the stronger position she was in by abrogating the rule. And then the degradation of being on the watch constantly for the infraction of the rule; instead of teaching she found she had become cat-like, on the alert lest a word might leap out of the mouth of some thoughtless child. Yes, she had put herself in a better position before the school. And before the tribunal of her conscience she felt she could stand erect and unabashed; so that she occupied stronger ground.

She did not notice more noise the next day; the forefingers rose somewhat frequently in the air; a little nod was followed by a bit of a smile; an important communication was made and the lesson resumed.

Somehow Esther began to look on the pupil's side from this time on. She found mind-reading needful. In all explanations of difficult matters the questions would arise, What is the state of the pupil's mind? She was led to look down deeper than she supposed she could. To keep order in her school-room was easy; to apprehend just what her pupils knew was the difficult task. To enter into their lives and think their thoughts was the key to the success she felt she was gaining.

When the spring came and the school was about to close she saw she was held in love and esteem by the entire group that daily gathered there with her. There was a feeling in the mind of every pupil, "I have been greatly benefited." How different Alvah Stebbins looked to her! His hair was cropped just as close and it stood up just as straight, as though he had been overwhelmingly surprised by some statement. But she knew him now. He had a brain that could follow  $x$  and  $y$  through all their doublings and give them their just numerical value. Much as she had taught him, he had taught her still more. The art of teaching had been leavened by the intense consideration of problems presented by this one boy.

Last year's souvenir number and this of 1894 together give a valuable presentation of education, historical, and current. The endeavor a twelve-month ago was to show four centuries of school growth and the status to which they had brought American education in the great Columbian year. In this number we show another year's progress and make a more attentive examination of the most progressive tendencies in the education of to-day.

# The Educational Trend in 1894.

## I. The Herbartian Standpoint in Theory.

### Introduction.

#### The Purpose and the Means of Education.

By CHARLES DEGARMO.

The main purpose of education viewed from this standpoint is conceived to be the moral revelation of the world to the child through instruction and social intercourse. Instead of dwelling exclusively upon the subjective or formal aspects of morality as the main reliance of moral training, this system regards more the child's relations to actual persons, things, and institutions. It seeks to give him a lively sense of the realities of the actual world, not by means of sermons, but by knowledge so presented as to yield clear insight and right disposition. A Puritanical training relies on repression and authority for influencing the moral character, that is, it is essentially negative; the Herbartian pedagogy relies upon knowledge of man and nature so presented that the will is stimulated to healthy activity by inherent interest in study, coupled with a constantly strengthening disposition toward right and away from wrong. This process is essentially positive.

The means for reaching these ends is a selection and arrangement of the subject matter of education together with methods of teaching, upon the basis of the processes of learning as observed in the child. This is the idea of apperception, according to which we acquire new knowledge chiefly upon the basis of that we have already acquired. It takes knowledge to enable us to assimilate knowledge. The curriculum must therefore be selected according to the idea of a happy synthesis of new facts and old experience; and it must be arranged and co-ordinated so that the most orderly and rapid advance possible may be secured. Not only is this selection and arrangement essential, but the methods of presentation must keep the child's experience, inclinations, and natural interests constantly in mind. Assimilation of facts, derivation of principles, rules, or generalization, and application of laws to new facts, are constant stages in the child's mental processes that must be kept ever in mind. This whole teaching process so conceived makes psychology immediately applicable to teaching.

The chief advantage of approaching the problems of teaching from this standpoint is that it furnishes a clear, definite method for investigating every topic that may present itself. Shall a study be introduced? The answer must be found from its relation, not only to what the child is to do ultimately, but to his natural interests, his experience, and to the other studies of the curriculum. How shall this study be introduced into the curriculum? Seek its natural co-ordination from the point of view of the developing child—his assimilating power and possible interest. Is this or that method sound and advisable? See if it will stimulate study, throw light upon other related knowledge, and

tend to develop a desirable attitude of mind.

The basis of all sound work along these lines is to make a mastery of the psychological standpoint of the system as found in such books as Lange's "Apperception," Lindner's "Psychology," and the like. When this has been fairly done, the teacher is ready to apply his knowledge to the daily affairs of the school-room.

*Swarthmore College, June, 1894.*



HERBART.

### Many-Sidedness of Interest.

By L. SEELEY.

Herbart and his followers lay great stress upon the subject of interest. It must be harmonious and it must also be many-sided. But what does Herbart mean by interest? He says, "The interest which man feels directly is the fountain of his life. To open many such fountains, and make them flow copiously and without hindrance, is the art of strengthening and intensifying human life." The word interest indicates in general the kind of mental activity which instruction should incite while its end is not simply knowledge. He who has certain fixed knowledge and seeks to extend it will be interested therein. This mental activity will of course be manifold, hence the expression "many-sidedness of interest."

There is the indirect interest and the direct. The former tends to narrowness, if not to egotism. The egotist interests himself, it may be unconsciously, only so far as his advantage or disadvantage is concerned. He estimates everything upon the narrow purpose for which he lives and thinks. He considers everything that does not minister to his circumscribed purposes as useless. Thus it has been found necessary in human society to subdivide labor. Greater perfection is thereby attained in the thing done, but the operator is certainly in danger of becoming fearfully narrow and one-sided.

Herbart would have each man a virtuoso in one field, but also acquainted with his neighbor's work and possessed with a love for the wider activity of all other departments. No doubt the modern tendency to specialize in every field of activity, whether it be professional, mechanical, or artistic, is meeting just the danger that Herbart foresaw three quarters of a century ago. How is this to be obviated? By many-sidedness of interest. This, however, must not be dissipated, that is exaggerated into "dabbling in many things."

A few years ago when so-called "object teaching" was the rage, the evil effect of this extreme was felt in our schools and we have not yet recovered from it. Object teaching wisely carried out is pedagogical and of unestimable value. But to bring into the school-room many objects for the sake of the objects or for the sake of variety is dissipating, unwise, and unpedagogical. Thus in teaching arithmetic it was thought necessary to bring in sticks, various colored blocks, fruits, and other objects, the more the better, forgetting that every particle of interest diverted to the object was just so much withdrawn from the subject itself, namely the number to be taught. A single, uniform object fully answers the purpose of presenting the concrete without dissipating the attention.

The same danger has been found in kindergarten work. Who has not found in children who have attended the kindergarten a dissipated smattering knowledge of many things which is fearfully distracting when attempts are made in their later education to secure consecutive, concentrated work? They have a superficial knowledge of many things, and it is difficult to



bring them down to specific acquirement and to inculcate habits of severe application. If it is true that the test of a trained mind is its ability to concentrate itself upon a subject at will and not allow itself to be diverted by surroundings, the results of the kindergarten are not encouraging. I do not attack the theory of the kindergarten, but, measured by its results, it seems to me that it is far from an unqualified success as now practiced both in this country and Germany. The theory of the kindergarten is in harmony with Herbart's idea of many-sided interest. It awakens interest in many directions, it is many-sided. The practice of the kindergarten is not in harmony with Herbart's teachings nor with good pedagogics, in that it "dabbles in many things," without leading to mastery in any.



LEVI SEELEY.

Just as the Sunday-school has largely supplanted the good old-fashioned idea of religious training in the home, so the kindergarten is coming to take the place of the early training by mothers. Just as the former has gotten far away from the idea of Robert Raikes, so the latter is getting away from the idea of Fröbel. Robert Raikes established the Sunday-school for outcasts who had no religious training at home, and Fröbel founded the kindergarten for exactly the same class. Neither had the slightest idea of taking that first of all duties of motherhood, the training of the early years of her own offspring, away from the mother. President Payne of the Ohio Wesleyan university admirably sums up the situation regarding religious training in the following words: "The state commits it to the family, the family relies upon the church, the church intrusts it to the Sunday-school, and between these several agencies with their indifference and inefficiency, the one transcendent work of the republic, the proper education of its youth, is most negligently and imperfectly achieved." Indeed Fröbel himself says: "The true mother will never consent to confide the training of the early years of her child to another person." He urged the training of mothers in the art of bringing up their children, and indeed many of his plays were intended for the home, more than for the school. I do not see that Herbart and Fröbel are antagonistic, by any means. Both taught a many-sided interest which is to be wisely directed to a certain end and not dissipated or superficial.

Interest for the sake of amusement is not the purpose, but interest with an educational end; there will be pleasure to the child in such awakened interest because the subject matter will be suited to him. There is a vast difference between instructing a child in order to give him pleasure, and instructing him for some abiding purpose in such a manner as make it pleasurable to him. The former is the work of a charlatan, the latter that of an educator.

What are the conditions of many-sidedness? Herbart answers by concentration and reflection. It is easy for even the child to concentrate his attention upon subjects that are in harmony with his natural bent. But to concentrate the mind upon what is not natural to us requires education, and he only has acquired a many-sided interest who is able to turn the mind with clearness in all directions. And this means the training of the will, so important in the Herbartian system of pedagogics.

This power is attained by means of *clearness, association, system, method*. These must follow each other, indeed must be interwoven with one another. For, in the first place, the beginner must go very slowly; shortest steps are the surest for him. He must be kept on each point until it is thoroughly mastered.

It is thus of highest importance that the teacher of beginners, the primary teacher, shall possess the ability to separate the subject into smallest details; in a word, be able to bring himself down to the range of the child mind. In the second place, it is difficult at first to form a systematic connection in the mind of the child. He has not learned the power of connected thought. He is interested a moment in this, and then his thought turns to that. Hence with young children the periods of instruction must necessarily be short.

But it is the duty of the teacher to train the child to systematic thinking. To do this it must be remembered that in system each point has a definite place, and each point is connected with some points closely related, and others more distantly related. The teacher must not simply unite the closely related points; but also find means of bringing in the more remotely related in order to make a complete, systematic whole. And this system must not simply be learned, it must be practiced and applied and many examples given. The interest must be awakened on all sides and not simply an isolated truth be taught, but a system of related truths. The preparation lies in the association, and the exercise of methodical thought must follow.

To obtain clearness, the German practice is for the teacher to give the theme to the children in the most clear and comprehensible terms, and usually require one or more of the pupils to repeat it until thoroughly mastered by the pupils.

For association, conversational method is preferred in that it encourages the child to make use of his own powers, avoids stiffness, and leads to the easiest and most natural application of his knowledge.

But in the matter of system, Herbart thinks the manner of teaching should move in the form of discourse on the part of the teacher. Having produced clearness by simply telling the story to the child and having him repeat it, having developed association by conversation, the teacher is expected to reduce the whole to system by connected statement. By giving prominence to the main thoughts, system makes us conscious of the great value of properly arranged knowledge, and by greater completeness of the understanding of the subject the sum of knowledge is increased. But this will be lost if given to the child too early, before he is capable of understanding it.

Practice in methodical thinking will be acquired by the pupil by means of exercises, by original work, and by making corrections of the same. Here will be the test whether the principal points have been grasped by the pupil and whether he is able to apply them.

There are two general classes of interest: those arising from *knowledge*, such as, 1, the *empirical interest* which is that arising from change and novelty in the presentation of concrete things; 2, the *speculative interest*, or the search for the causal connection of things to which the mysterious or problematical impels the mind; and, 3, the *aesthetic interest*, that aroused by the beautiful in art, nature or morals; and the second general class those arising from *association*. Such as, 1, the *sympathetic interest*, aroused by the joy or sorrow of others; 2, the *social interest*, which regards the general good of mankind; and, lastly, the *religious interest*, which has to do with the immortal welfare of man. These interests cover the



whole field of human thought and human instruction.

I close this article with a quotation from Kern as follows: "The pupil should find in a many-sided interest a moral support and protection against the servitude that springs from the rule of desire and passion. It should protect him from the errors that are the consequence of idleness; it should arm him against the fitful chances of fortune; it should make life valuable even when a cruel fate has robbed it of its most cherished object; it should enable one to find a new calling if driven from the old; it should elevate him to a standpoint from which the material things of life appear as of little account, and above which the moral character stands free and sublime."

## Apperception as to Method.

By EDGAR DUBS SHIMER.

The material world with its manifold stimuli might play forever upon our end-organs and keep the nerve system perpetually functioning without once rousing a sensation were there not an entity, other than material, entitled to be called "thing" with even more right than may be claimed for a nerve. Stimulus alone cannot be taken as the measure of a sensation. A factor not to be ignored is the adjustment of the mind to one among various other simultaneous stimuli. This mental adjustment by means of which a sensation becomes essentially what it is in its incipient cognitive grasp has been called apperception. The relation between self and not-self germinates at this point, and, as mental life complexes, we find that the mind seizes on other relations more and more explicitly, so that apperception may be called in its primary, or philosophical, sense the relation-finding power. The moment anything attracts or interests us, that moment it is apperceived.

Apperception may further be defined as the power to bring all the related known in our mental possession to bear upon the unknown which attracts. This may appropriately be named "pedagogical apperception" to distinguish it from the former. To apperceive pedagogically is to reinforce the presentative element in perception by all the flocking memories of former presentatives. It is the marshalling of two orders of repre-

entate ourselves in the mental world. This points to the propriety of naming the first act of sensing perception, original perception. Then the etymological and the pedagogical content of the term apperception would coincide. But according to prevailing terminology we do not perceive until we recognize a past in a present sensation, until we can say "Hello, thing-um-bob!" This implies, however, that sensing is cognizing and that perceiving is recognizing. Therefore to emphasize the inner aspect of the cognitive or sensing process *assensing* would be the more appropriate term, *apperception* being taken to emphasize the recognitive part of perception, and *ad-apperception* the suggestion of associated traces.

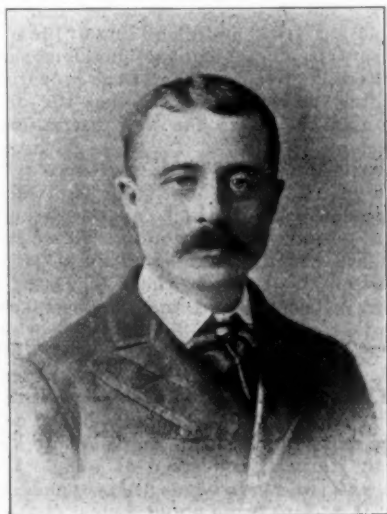
When we say that we see that an orange is rough we have more than a first sensing, or even recognition. To see roughness we must have what is called an "acquired perception," inasmuch as we originally sense only color and light, possibly surface, by the retina, whereas roughness is sensed by skin and muscle excitations. This so-called acquired perception comes by way of suggestion and is a case of *ad-apperception*.

Having originally received several sense-impressions along several different lines of nervation, and having unitized or integrated them into one concrete corresponding to the external object from which the stimuli stream, we are thereafter enabled under the influence of a single line of stimulus not only to react again as originally and to seize afresh the first relation (apperception philosophical, assensing), but also under the laws of memory to reinforce this act by the representative traces of former similar acts (apperception pedagogical to the first power), and further under the laws of suggestion to fortify this representative group with other dissimilar traces allied when the complex whole was unitized (apperception pedagogical to the second power).

It is this third degree of apperception, called the second power of pedagogical apperception, to which especial attention is invited. From the known to the related unknown does not, however, exclude the thought that the known follows a knowing, and that the knowing implies a knower.

For the teacher a full knowledge of the subject-matter in hand is assuredly necessary, but it is not all-sufficient. Successful teaching implies as well an intimate acquaintance with mental processes, confessedly so or not. The philosophy of method in teaching has at its core the principle of apperception operating in all its phases. It demands of every teacher first that an attainable goal be erected in full view of the pupil, to arouse desire, to focus, effort and to exclude the irrelevant; second, that the approach be graded, according to the pupil's habit of learning, according to what he knows, in order to reach after the related unknown, and according to his power of comparing; third, that the means be varied to harmonize individual with class-teaching, to reach the eye-minded, the ear-minded, the tactile minded, etc., and to summate influences by reviewing frequently without appearing to do so; fourth, that the pupil's self-activity be fostered through every form of expression, the proper complement of all acquisition, to the end that he may be emancipated from pupillage by growing more and more a student, increasingly zealous for development, jealous of every opportunity to plan and execute for himself.

True apperception involves primal self-activity, and its close study points to the truths that environment is not all-compelling, that variation is a potent factor, that individuality must be respected, that the teacher is but a mediary and that what for him, or, even some of his pupils, may be purely analytic, may for others in the class-room, relatively to their mental stock, be supremely synthetic, whilst for still others it may be neither. To get a thought out of one's own mind is one thing, to get it into another person's mind is quite a different undertaking. To comprehend apperception profoundly and to appreciate its ultimate bearings the teacher should know its relations to the whole mentaleconomy. Then he may confidently rely in his work upon the progressive renewing of the inward man day by day.



EDGAR DUBS SHIMER.

sentative traces, the first being of the same, the second of a different class with the presentative. By assimilation of like traces we recognize a former sensation in a present one, and by the suggestion of associated traces of unlike origin we give to it its appropriate escort.

Our first reactive consciousness, our first sensing is not suffused with representatives of either order, yet here, if anywhere, we begin to find relations and to ori-

## The Five Formal Steps.

By MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN.

For the last twenty or twenty-five years, German pedagogical circles have been agitated by a fierce struggle between the two factions into which educators had separated since Herbart and his most devoted and also most gifted disciple, Tuiscon Ziller, had appeared on the scene. A relatively small number rally round the Herbartian banner, while the other faction is composed of the defenders of the old educational ideas and practice. To understand the purport and character of this struggle, and to do justice to both sides, one must remember that German teachers have for many years been the standard-bearers of instructional method, and one must also know the peculiar attitude which the innovators assumed towards the "Vulgaerpaedagogen,"



MAXIMILIAN P. E. GROSZMANN.

as they contemptuously called their opponents. The Herbartians talked as if they were the first discoverers of the "science" of pedagogy; as if there had been no scientific study and philosophic conception of educational problems before the Herbartian school came into existence, or outside of it. Besides, they claimed to alone understand and rightly interpret the teachings of their master, while, as a matter of fact, they often misinterpreted him, laid too much stress on minor details, carried some things to extremes, and were in their way as bigoted as any fanatic.

The "Vulgaerpaedagogen," on the other hand, pointed with pride to educational thinkers of historic fame, such as Comenius and Pestalozzi, and to the many admirably conducted normal schools (teachers' seminaries) where for many years the art of education had received the most careful attention, and through whose successful work the German schools had become famous. Men like Friedrich Dittes, Prof. Frick, Dr. F. Bartels, and many others whose names are held in high repute in educational circles, opposed the pretensions of the Herbartians most energetically, censured their untimely zeal, and exposed their extravagances.

Both sides sinned gravely against the best interests of pedagogical science. But the heat of passion is gradually subsiding, and the combatants begin to understand each other.

The five formal steps of instruction, as suggested by Herbart and formulated by Ziller, were one of the points of attack around which the battle raged bitterest. Not that the Anti-Herbartians denied that there was merit in this methodical proposition; but they asserted that in all essential things this method of presentation had always been followed by good and well-trained teachers, and that in its technical elaboration by the Zillerians, it had become so stiff and stilted that it robbed

the teacher of his freedom. Yet, the more general recognition of the value of the formal steps as a methodical principle led to the first truce in this civil war of pedagogues. The Anti-Herbartians learned to appreciate the true meaning of this principle for instructional practice, and acknowledged that Herbart had elucidated a heretofore merely empirical method, by developing a clear-cut theory instead of leaving everything to the tact and insight of the individual teacher from case to case; and that he had evolved, out of an indefinite instinctive feeling of what ought to be done, a definite pedagogical idea.\*

It was also admitted that it is due to Herbart "to have firmly demanded and psychologically demonstrated the need of a preparatory step (analysis) in every lesson.†

On the other hand, the Herbartians have given up the claim that they were the inventors of this principle, and they also concede that its practical application must not degenerate into "dead formalism," but must be left to the discretion of an intelligent teacher.

Indeed, the psychological basis of the "formal steps" is quite firm. Learning and conceiving is a process of apperception.\*\* All new conceptions are acquired by the pupil only through the help of previous and newly revived groups of concepts. The older concepts and their associations are receiving (*apperceiving*); the new ones are received (*apperceived*). In order to understand the new, corresponding old concepts must exist in the mind and must be revived within the sphere of attention. First, therefore, an analytical treatment of the old; then the presentation and synthetical treatment of the new. A closer scrutiny of this process shows that it consists of several psychical acts: first, perception of the new, then revival of corresponding older concepts, then modification of these concepts, and finally the reception and putting into place of the new idea in the storehouse of thoughts. When, *e. g.*, a child sees a swan for the first time, at once the older concept "goose" will emerge from the depth of his consciousness, and he may think the swan to be nothing more than a big, beautiful goose. He will observe the same webbed feet, the same white feathers—only that neck and bill are longer, the body larger and better proportioned, etc.; in other words, the concept of the goose has to be somewhat modified so that the new concept "swan" may be evolved and received into its proper place in the orderly arrangement of concepts. The new acquisition depends, as is thus seen, upon an analytical understanding of the older concept. A truly psychological method demands, therefore, that there be given an analytical preparation before presenting the new theme, so that the process of apperception in taking in the new matter may go on smoothly.

On this basis the idea of the formal steps is founded. The course in each branch of study is divided into a number of lessons each of which can be worked out in one or two periods of instruction. These lessons or small parts, are called "methodical units" ("methodische Einheiten"). Each of them is treated so thoroughly that it becomes the mental possession of the pupil; in other words, that he gains clear concepts, connects these with other kindred knowledge and takes hold of the ideas, general notions or laws expressed therein. The steps necessary to bring about this result are: (1) *Preparation*: (2) *presentation* of the new material. These two steps thus distinguished by Rein were originally, by Herbart, conceived as one; "Klarheit" (clearness), with two subdivisions Analysis and Synthesis, whose aim it was to bring about a clear conception of the new object or idea, by first reviving one or a few previously acquired concepts of the same or a similar order (from the known to the unknown), and then connecting with them the new material which is now studied in all its details. The third step, *Association*, connects the

\* Cf. Dr. F. Bartels. "Die Anwendbarkeit der Herbart-Ziller-Stoy'schen didaktischen Grundsätze, etc.," Wittenburg, 1885, p. 118.

† Bartels, p. 115.

\*\* Cf. Dr. G. Froehlich, "Die Wissenschaftliche Paedagogik," Wien & Leipzig, 1885, p. 103, ff.

new concept with as many as possible of the old concepts so as to establish a system of relations which will tend to unify all conceptional elements in the child's mind. This leads up to the fourth step, *Review*, or with Herbart, *System*, which does not mean merely a general recapitulation of all things learned in the lesson (or group of lessons), but also the abstraction of general ideas, notions, and laws from the particular conceptions. This process of abstraction representing the most complete acquisition or apperception is brought about by discovering the common qualities in different individuals or events so that these qualities may be conceived as ideas and ideals. The fifth step, *Application*, evolves the conversion of the theoretical knowledge to action and purpose; it tends to enable the child to be not merely a thinker of thoughts, but a doer of deeds, being fitted for action by organized knowledge.

Illustrations of the practical meaning of the five formal steps in actual instruction have been so frequently given that it is unnecessary to present any here. It ought to be stated, however, that the creative method of "Learning by Doing" demands a combination of the first and second steps with elements of the fifth, and presentation will then mean discovery.

The teacher's function is to work out clear and definite concepts in each lesson or group of lessons; to associate these concepts and lessons with one another as diligently and comprehensively as conditions will allow, and to take care that the manifold concepts, like the radii of a circle, point to one center so as to produce unity of conception. Thus will be produced in the pupil that *full-orbed interest* (vielseitiges Interesse) which is the keynote of Herbart's educational philosophy.†

Ziller's "formal steps" have indeed many things in common with the long established practice of experienced teachers. But, as Th. Wiget\*\*\* points out, this fact does not allow definite conclusions as to Ziller's position in the history of education. His work dates not from yesterday; his principal volume appeared almost forty years ago, and that of Herbart was first published in 1806. Who can tell how much of the thought of these men has simmered down into the ordinary school practice and routine before teachers became fully aware of the source of these inspirations?

At any rate we owe to Herbart and Ziller the first definite formulation of a fundamental, methodical principle, and must honor in them representatives of that creative genius which is destined to liberate the world from the bonds of empiricism and shallow routine, to lift it on the higher level of philosophic insight and scientific method.

New York, June, '94.

† Cf. Johann Friedrich Herbart, "Allgemeine Paedagogik" (1806 Langensalza, 1890, Zweites Buch, pp. 153-216; "Umrisspaedagogischer Vorlesungen," Zweiter Theil, pp. 310 ff.; Tuiskon Ziller, "Allgemeine Paedagogik" (1876) Leipzig, 1892, pp. 240 ff.

\*\*\* "Die formalen Stufen des Unterrichts," Chur, 1883-84, p. 4.

Prof. Rein says: "Instruction is to proceed in each and every methodical unit after the following manner:

- (1) By means of a preliminary discussion the new topic is introduced and prepared.
- (2) The new is presented to the class.
- (3) The new is compared and connected in its parts and with older mental possessions.
- (4) The conceptional results are drawn out and arranged in systematic order.
- (5) The acquired knowledge is converted into practical use.

The names of the five steps are, according to the terminology of the Herbart-Ziller school, as follows: (1) analysis, (2) synthesis, (3) association, (4) system, (5) method. Herbart comprises analysis and synthesis in one, and thus mentions only four steps. We should prefer to replace them by the following names: (1) *preparation*, (2) *presentation* (of the new), (3) *comparison* (the newly learned in its parts and with other ideas), (4) *classification* (of the conceptional material), and (5) *application* (of the concepts gained).

## Educative Geography.

By THEO. B. NOSS.

"Erziehender Unterricht" (educative instruction) is a term much used by German teachers. It strikes the English eye at first as tautological, for all instruction is supposed to be educative. This, however, in the opinion of those who use the term, is not the case.

There is an essential difference between instruction which aims to impart knowledge and that which seeks to form the mind. The knowledge teacher and the educating teacher are not traveling the same road. Their goal is different. The first values knowledge as an end, and sacrifices the child (albeit unconsciously) to it; the second values knowledge only as a means, and sacrifices it, if necessary, to the child.

The first quotes fondly, "Knowledge is power;" the second says, "Though I have all knowledge it profits me nothing without a disciplined mind." In the prac-



THEODORE B. NOSS.

tice school connected with Professor Rein's seminary, at Jena, Germany, I have observed some teaching which I think fairly illustrates educative instruction in geography.

A class of ten-year-old boys are studying the Harz mountains. A month ago, when I first saw them, their history study brought them face to face with the interesting character of the emperor, Henry the Fowler. Here in the Harz were his hunting grounds; here the scenes of many interesting exploits.

The necessity of knowing this region better was apparent to all. It was not an arbitrary selection by the teacher. The teacher thus firmly connected his geography with his history, and at once prepared for a two-months campaign in the study of the Harz.

No general could have chosen a field of operations with more tact. Here is a small, detached, mountain mass, about sixty miles in length and less than half of that in width, affording a great variety of geographical material, mountains, valleys, rivers, forests, towns, mines, manufactures, agriculture, and a wealth of historical and mythological associations.

The teacher, instead of skimming over the great continents, loading the memory with names and facts that cannot be assimilated, plunges into this miniature world only fifty miles distant, and really teaches the big world through the little one. As the class now studies the Harz, so previously they learned the Thuringian Forest, and their native Saale valley, and so later they will study other regions; but always in the spirit of the same method. The teacher is not required to spread his instruction alike over the surface of the whole earth, thus making it so thin everywhere, that it amounts to nothing anywhere. His work is intensive rather than



extensive. It is not a question of the *what*, but of the *how*, not quantity but quality; not facts but thinking.

The class begin their study by finding the location of the Harz. This is easily done by starting from Jena, and following the familiar Saale valley northward. Each pupil has a map of the Harz region mounted on stiff cardboard, and a map of Germany is on the wall.

No other helps are visible. No text-book whatever. The pupils do not read, but *think* their way through the subject. The class discover such interesting facts as that the Harz mountains lie farther north than any other in Germany; that to the west, north, and northeast stretch low plains to the sea; that the Harz form an isolated mountain-mass; that their nearest neighbor is the Thuringian Forest; that their direction is north-west and southeast. The first lesson closes with a blackboard sketch by the pupils.



W. REIN.

In the following lesson, the length and width of the Harz are first found, and then the height. The pupils readily find horizontal distances by noting the map scale and applying their measures (each carries a meter tape line). To find altitudes for themselves is not so easy. They can determine from their maps *relative* heights, shaded places showing elevated regions, darkest shades, higher mountains, and bright spots in the center of shaded masses showing highest summits; but this does not give them absolute heights. Here the teacher had to give to the pupils what he could not draw from them. He gave them the height of the Brocken (nearly 4000 feet), and of one or two of the next highest summits.

At this point in the lesson the teacher and class go to a pile of sand in the school-yard, and proceed to build the Harz for themselves. There is a saying that "God knows everything because He made it." The idea applies also in the education of the young.

I did not understand at first why the teacher had the sand piled up against the wall. It seemed less convenient to get at, but the motive was apparent later. After the boys had finished their work, each one having a chance to make any improvement he saw fit, the teacher proceeds to the main object of this sand lesson, viz., to teach elevation measurements. He asks, How high is the Brocken? The boys answer, 1150 meters. The next question was a test one. The pupils know *to* what the measurement is made in finding the height of the Brocken, but there is vagueness and uncertainty as to *from* what it is made. The reader could doubtless find adults who have studied geography not a little, and yet are unable to say precisely what is meant, for example, by the statement that Mount Washington is over 6000 feet high. Some of the boys, in this class, thought the top of the Brocken is 1150 meters higher than the base; and hence, in climbing the mountain, that one would actually have

to climb 1150 meters. Others thought the Brocken is 1150 meters above Jena. Others there were who were not satisfied with either theory. It was recalled that on the familiar Saale bridge in Jena, an inscription states that that point is 150 meters above the sea. Soon all are agreed that the Brocken is only 1000 meters higher than Jena, and the important fact is objectively and vividly shown that all land elevations are measured from the sea-level.

A space of level ground, in the angle between the sand-pile and the wall, is taken to represent the sea-level. Then a space is cleared beside it, on the boards on which the sand is piled, and this represents the lowland. Next a higher sand level is taken for the hill land. And, finally, the highest sand summit represents the mountain land.

The teacher chooses the lesson by connecting these various levels with a chalk-line on the wall.

Every lesson is made an exercise in the right use of language, oral and written. This language must be the expression of the pupil's own thought. For example, the form of the Harz is discussed. Various answers are given, the best of which is "Like a big egg" or "It is egg-shaped." The teacher here suggests the word "oval." Comparison of the Harz with other mountains brings out at length the statement that it is a "mountain-mass." A pupil then embodies these facts in the sentence, "The Harz is a mountain-mass, and forms a great oval." The patience of the teacher in working and *waiting* until the child gets clear concepts, and the skill of the child afterwards in gathering up these concepts into well formed statements, excite alike the admiration of the visitor.

I witnessed a written exercise on the Harz which involved language training of quite a different kind from the oral lessons which preceded. The object was to sum up, in an exercise-book, with pen and ink (no lead pencils are used), neatly, fully, but in a *very condensed* form, all that had been thus far learned.

The aim now was not to get full sentences, as before, but to omit all except the essential word. The boys taxed their wits, like a man writing his first telegram, to find the most concise expressions. Even the title gave them some trouble. One little fellow suggested, "We will describe the Harz;" another "A description of the Harz." At length, however, they agreed upon simply, "The Harz."

It was written first on the board, and then in each book. Then followed, in like manner, situation, form, direction, height, and divisions. The work was perfect as to punctuation, capitals, and spacing, and very neat as to penmanship. The exercise book plays an important role in the German school, in general. Wherever the book is opened it shows the pupil at *his best*. The pupil is face to face always with high standards.

The drainage of the Harz was the subject of an intensely interesting lesson. The pupils see on their maps rivers flowing through deep valleys. How were these valleys formed? Questions draw out the fact that as rain falls, most of the water soaks into the ground, and reappears in springs.

The boys name certain springs they know; some of them high up on the hillside. The teacher turns a tin basin upside down, and places some gravel and moss on it. He then pours water on top. The water quickly runs off. This illustrates the conditions on the bald, stony mountains around Jena. Not enough water is held to support vegetation. He then illustrates the different nature of the Harz, by adding clay and moss to the gravel, and then pouring on water. The water, after a short time begins to trickle down the sides and to form little gutters. The effect of water in cutting deep valleys is discussed. The Harz is found to be well-watered and well-wooded.

Thus the boys advance step by step, very slowly, *making* their geography as they go. It is an affair of the reason, and not of the memory.

Not being able to follow the lessons farther, I asked the teacher if they were nearly through with the Harz? "Only well begun," he replied. "We must now take up

the vegetable, and animal life in the Harz; the people, their towns, customs, the leading industries, such as mining; art, as shown in interesting old churches; and especially the history, mythology, and literature associated with the Harz. We will devote at least two months, in all, to the study of this region." "But," I said, "you will not have time to study much of the earth's surface in this exhaustive manner." "It will not be necessary," he answered; "the knowledge and power the pupils acquire in the study of one region they can apply to any other."

This series of lessons will be followed by an excursion to the Harz. The pupils, teachers, and practice teachers, will all go on this excursion, which will occupy ten days or two weeks. An excursion to some place of interest is made every year by the members of the seminary. The choice of the Harz this summer has led the teacher, whose work is here referred to, to make a special study, in advance, of that region.

*Jena, Germany, May 16, 1894.*

## Ethical Bearings of Nature Study.

By WILBUR S. JACKMAN.

The purpose of all education and of every factor in education is to develop character. Character is determined by the power of the individual to ascertain and maintain his place in the great scheme of created things, and it is based upon intelligence and motive.

True study is but the perpetual seeking of one's place in nature. Ignorance of natural law on the part of the many has always led to the perversion of it on the part of the few, and this has made possible the subjection of both mind and body. Only as man has made intelligent study of nature has he risen in the fullness of life.

Nature study is the first necessity and an inalienable right of the child. By the shimmering light, through the tremulous air, and to his inquisitive touch she speaks to him in his earliest moments when even his mother strives vainly to be understood. With these initial touches, education begins, and, as contact with nature widens, the senses quicken, the judgment



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strengthens, the rational imagination grows, and the thoughts which come into the mind, as it contemplates the mutual adaptations of the different parts of nature, and their relations to the whole are, in their suggestion of infinite law, the loftiest that can possess the human soul.

Slowly has science work made its way into the schools and into a place in public thought. At first its whole value was supposed to lie in the training of the senses; then as a discipline for the reasoning powers; then as a basis for rational imagination and the final question,

still under debate, is as to its value in moral culture. But the mind is a unit, and it acts as a whole, and, in thus acting in its entirety, the moral nature is always involved. In no complete mental effort is the moral nature a non-participant, nor can it remain inactive or indifferent. The value of any particular study is in its reactive effect, and the mind as a whole receives this as whole, and not in one part or another.

The search for truth in whatever domain of thought is intrinsically moral. All study of truth leads to the same goal, namely, the determination of the proper relations of the individual. Whether the pupil studies the life of George Washington or the life of a tree, the motive is precisely the same. And when the natural harmony that exists between the man and his surroundings is recognized and appreciated, and when the natural harmony that exists between the tree and its surroundings is recognized and appreciated, in the reactive effect, the same moral uplift, the same meaning for "ought" is obtained from both. This claim would not be made for tree study as too often conducted, which stops on the plane of mere dissection and description, any more than it would be made for the study of Washington when it stops with date of birth and death and the number of years spent in war, and the President's chair. Each phase of study complements the other; the truth obtained from either source alone lacks wholeness, and is incapable of being transmuted into genuine character except in the presence of the other, and in combination with it. Moral degeneration leading to crime, and physical deterioration leading to disease, are not due to ignorance of the facts relating to human conduct on the one hand, and to ignorance of the facts of science on the other, but to ignorance of the relations which both sets of facts bear to each other—not directly—but through the individual. Character growth lies along that resultant which is determined by the reactive effect of all study.

## Ethical Bearings of Number Study.

By ERNST RICHARD.

To the superficial observer there seems to be very little of the ethical element in mathematics. Still there is a moral side even to the daily lesson in arithmetic or algebra or geometry of the old school. No other branch of the curriculum could replace number work as a means of training the pupils in that quality which forms the base for scientific, or correct, thinking and accuracy. In fact each problem is a lesson in accuracy, order, honesty, carefulness, truthfulness. Any false step taken will show itself inevitably in the end; lack of carefulness and accuracy will cause mistakes and delays. Any dishonesty is brought home to the offender.

But the true educative value of number work does not depend only on these intrinsic qualities, but also and accurately on the manner in which it is taught. The teacher must not allow the children to believe that they have to do with mere abstractions, which has nothing at all to do with the other branches of study, or to foster the idea that arithmetic is taught for, what people call its "practical" value only, practical meaning here giving the best preparation for making dollars and cents. A glance over the problems found in our school books will show that this idea is prominent at least with the text-book makers. There is none of all the studies which takes up so much of the pupils' time as arithmetic; the solving of such problems appears to the majority the most difficult, and most important task in school life; no wonder that the almighty dollar plays such prominent part in the adult life of the pupil whose mental diet consisted for years chiefly in the answering of questions like: "How much can I get for so much money?" of profit or loss, interest, real-estate transactions, brokerage, discount, etc.

While such problems as connect the school work with the world outside ought not to be entirely banished, the

teacher should keep in mind that perhaps of all the branches, arithmetic may best be guarded against an isolated position amongst the school studies; that, on the contrary, no other branch may be as easily connected with every part of the curriculum and help to maintain that educational unity which is the most essential postulate for character building.

Number, measurement, reduction to a mathematical expression of truth, represents an important stage of all scientific investigation. It is well known that Herbart, with success, tried to fix the varying phenomena of psychology in algebraic formulæ. It is in the field of science that the pupil should learn to apply number, where he will see that not in questions of debit and credit it plays its most prominent part, but that it is most valuable in furthering the development of human intelligence, that it is a most powerful factor in the evolution of the race. Similar problems to those proposed by W. S. Jackman, taken from the realm of the natural sciences, may be easily found in the service of other studies. I quote, for illustration, one set of Mr. Jackman's problems which so admirably connect the training in the observation powers with practice in number work:

"Study of soil: absorption of water. 1. Twenty grams of soil will absorb how many grams of water? 2. Twenty grams of soil will absorb what part of its weight of water? 3. What is the ratio of twenty grams of dry soil to the water it will absorb? 4. Dry soil will absorb what per cent. of its weight in water?"



ERNST RICHARD.

Geography should prove a mine for similar problems; an instance: 1. Give number of people in the U. S. who live in cities with a population of more than 100,000 inhabitants. 2. What part of the whole population is living in such cities? 3. What is the ratio of these to those living in smaller towns and in the country? 4. What per cent. of inhabitants live in such cities?

These same problems could be applied to single states, comparisons between different states, between the number of inhabitants in cities and country and the value of different products, and many other questions of interest within the scope of the child's power.

The more advanced the pupil in school the more opportunity is offered for this kind of work; while it is not necessary to mention physics which is in some of its parts to be considered a mathematical science pure and simple we may refer even to grammar as a field for the application of arithmetical processes. Instead of learning rules from grammars, or standing on the authorities of dictionaries, a pupil may make very well limited observations about the frequency of occurrence of certain words, phrases, idioms, constructions in standard

authors, and by practicing ratio and percentage settle for himself questions of linguistic correctness.

Its application in manual training and drawing is obvious.

Arithmetic taught in this way will make money-making a less prominent aim in life; applied to the immediate interests of the pupils, it will lose a great deal of its dryness; its connection with the other branches will help to give the mind that consciousness of unity, which is to character what the backbone is to the body.

*Hoboken, (N. J.) Academy, June, '94.*

## The Place of the Three R's in the Educative School.

By C. B. GILBERT.

The term "the Three R's" has become almost a classic and stands for the "practical man's" view of the essentials of education. It represents generically those mechanic arts by which man communicates ideas. The original list, reading, 'riting, 'rithmetic (observe the "practical man's" brevity in spelling) has been somewhat enlarged by the addition of grammar, drawing, modeling, and construction, but the struggle is still about the original Three R's. It is a question of values.

What is the place of these practical arts in a scheme of educational values? that is, in a properly arranged course of study? Are they, as the hard-headed and hard-fisted founders of the school system claim, the essentials of education? Are they merely necessary incidents?

They are not the essentials, since no art from its nature can be essential. An art is a means or method of expression and receives its value primarily from the idea which it expresses; secondarily, from the truthfulness with which it expresses the idea. This is as true of the higher arts, sculpture, music, and painting as of the common, every-day arts reading and writing.

But if not essential, these arts are necessary both to right and wise living, which is the end of education, and to the acquisition of the very essentials of education itself. They are not the treasure but they are the open sesame. The mistake which has all along been made in the schools is not in teaching the three R's nor in teaching them well, but in giving them undue prominence; treating them as essential, out of proportion and out of relation.

Nothing is more important in education than the preservation of correct standards of values. It is important if we wish to give the child correct views of life. Man's life is but the reflection of his habits of thought. If, during all the period of rapid growth and mental plasticity, his habits of thought are superficial, if he is led to place the surface above the reality, the art above the idea, acquisition above character, what hope is there that in after life the man and the citizen will reverse these habits and take a correct view of life?

Unless the material of his education is presented to him in its true relations, form as form, content as content, he goes into life so trained for mistakes that either he must effect with great difficulty a complete revolution of his mental furnishing or fail. This is not transcendental philosophy, it is good sound sense. A true conception of material and spiritual values as an equipment for life is worth more to the child than the most perfect knowledge possible of all the arts.

Yet, as I have said, reading, writing, and arithmetic must be taught and thoroughly taught. How then can a teacher, filled with high ambitions and possessing correct educational ideals, be true to these ideals and yet escape martyrdom to school authorities or to that half-wise, half-foolish, cruel, ungrateful, spasmodically affectionate body, the public?

The answer is very simple, so simple that it hardly needs stating. It is by a correct grouping of subjects



so that form appears as form, and content as content; the school anticipating in its arrangements the relations of the larger life to come. That is all. No new machinery is needed. It all rests upon the spirit of the teacher. If she appreciates the real end of her work, the development of character and creation of true ideals in the child, she will deal with the various subjects in the school curriculum as means to this higher end, and the child will unconsciously become accustomed to see a higher aim in all that he does, and he will come to esteem the arts at their true value as means to higher ends. As I have already intimated, the cultivation of the habit of thought is everything.

I will illustrate with reference to the subjects severally: One of the three R's which has been most emphasized and has possibly produced most mischief is arithmetic. There is not space here to discuss the value of arithmetic as a study. It has its value and we may as well admit the fact and see if it can in any way be lifted out of the rut of absolute materialism into which it has sunk, and can be made to teach any higher lesson than that of money getting. It is certainly less easily co-ordinated with noble topics than any of the other arts, yet it is not necessarily so sordid.

The most that the teacher can do is to select problems which are not purely commercial and financial. Arithmetic certainly opens to the mind a broad field. It is really the key to the physical universe. The teacher who recognizes this can select in all grades problems from the work in nature study, from history especially, from the larger sciences, which will broaden the child. She can, with the younger children especially, emphasize giving instead of receiving, and can while she teaches the mathematical relations, thoroughly impress it upon the child that acquisition is not a virtue, but merely a material necessity; and she can so emphasize the other subjects in the curriculum as to reduce arithmetic to its proper place.

Reading is the art by which we are able to receive the thought of others remote in time and space. It is the key to the recorded thought of mankind. It may be the most valuable of arts, for it unlocks to us those ideals which have elevated humanity and makes possible a better life for us. It also may unlock the kingdom of the devil. In these days when the daily press is reeking with impurity and when the newstands in every city of the land contain evil enough to corrupt the morals of all the youth of the city, simply to teach a child to read is not an unmixed good. It is like turning him loose in a chemical laboratory, ignorant of the qualities of the various chemicals about him. In his attempt to find the elixir of life he may drink a deadly poison.

In order that reading may help toward a better citizenship, the first essential is the selection of the reading matter. This is now comparatively easy. The markets are full of complete selections of choice literature, adapted to children of all ages. Even if the school boards do not furnish it, a little zeal on the part of the teacher and the resulting enthusiasm on the part of the children will supply the lack.

From the first grade through the high school nothing should be presented to the child as reading matter which is not choice literature, tending to elevate his taste and purify his ideals. It is safest to stick to the classics.

Second. This good literature having been selected, adapted to the comprehension of the child, it should be treated as good literature, and not as a series of reading lessons. The pupils should always be led to read for the value of the matter itself. Every reading lesson should be a study of literature in the true sense. I do not mean by this that petty picking to pieces of gems, which has been mis-called in our high schools and colleges the study of literature. Breaking a diamond with a hammer is not the best way to find out its beauties. But the teacher herself should first grasp the author's thought and then delicately and insinuatingly lead the child to see and appreciate it. One thing will lead to another and the teacher who has not tried it

will be astonished to see with what enthusiasm and what intelligence the average class in any grade will study the author and his works, provided merely that the works presented be within the comprehension of the children, and that they be presented for their own worth. The child should read in school as he reads at home, as the adult reads for the thought of the author.

But how about expression and pauses and articulation? If the children are once interested in the work presented to them they become at once desirous of presenting the thought which has pleased them, truly. They realize the need of the art, and it is easily taught. I know nothing more distressing than mechanical, though correct, inflection. But correct inflection, made easy because the child is anxious to give you a thought, is beautiful.

Writing is certainly a mechanical art, the acquisition of which is a part of the child's manual training. No one but the maddest pen-artist will claim for it any higher value. Hence, it should always be taught for the sake of expressing thought and by such expression. That is, the child should learn to write by writing that which the higher work of his life in school or out requires him to write; the technique then is simply taught.

But a more important subject in immediate connection with this is language. The same general principle applies to this which applies to reading. Language should be taught as the vehicle of thought and not for itself. First, stimulate the child to good thinking. That is most easily and best done in connection with other subjects of intrinsic value. The literature of which we have already spoken furnishes perhaps the best and most stimulating subject for the child's thought. Certainly it constitutes one of the best materials for language lessons.

After the child's mind has been stimulated and his imagination aroused by the study of an author and of his works he has no lack of thought about the author. He should then be encouraged to express the thought he has, should be led to believe that it is worth expression and that it deserves the very best expression which art can give. That done, he is ready for technical instruction in the art.

Grammar and rhetoric, like penmanship, are seen to be necessities for the higher end and their definite study is hence free from all thought of drudgery.

The study of history presents other interesting and inspiring topics for the same use. For the young child especially, the study of nature, not technical, but as man's environment, is on one of the very best topics for the development of the child's powers, and hence as a basis for language lessons. But it should be clearly comprehended by the teacher that these are the real relations. That literature and history and the study of nature are not introduced as sugar coating for the bitter pill, language, but that they are the real thing and that language, writing, reading, drawing, and the other arts are only secondary.

I have seen language lessons based upon those nobler subjects which were so evidently language lessons that it seemed like a prostitution of the noble to the base. I do not wish to be misunderstood. The arts must be taught, and thoroughly, but they must be taught as means to ends, and the child's mind must continually be kept upon those noble themes which shall lift his ideals, give him correct and pure habits of thought, and show to him the various elements of intellectual and moral life in their true relations. This needs no new machinery. It simply needs teachers who believe in it and who live in the higher world. No teacher should be discouraged at this because the very study of the subjects themselves will be found to be a source of inspiration, and such an incentive to moral growth that she will be astonished at her own development.

Teacher, bowed down by the drudgery of routine, carrying through your life the corpses of the three R's, try to resurrect them by breathing into them a higher and purer life and the results will surpass your belief.

*St. Paul, Minn., June, '94.*

## Studies and Occupations.

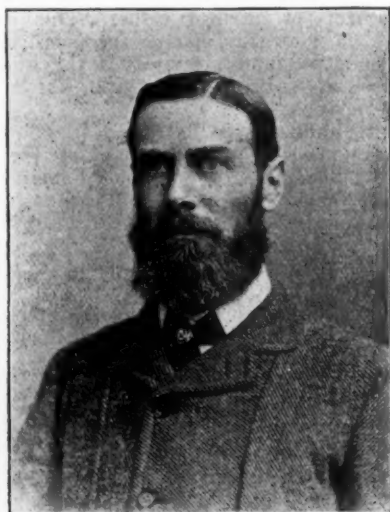
SUITABLE FOR CHILDREN BETWEEN THE AGES OF 7 AND 9.

By T. G. ROOPER.

It is the aim of this paper to indicate the lines on which improvement may be effected in the instruction of children between the ages of seven and nine. I decline at the outset to recognize the three R's as the essence of elementary education, and shall explain what in the range of elementary studies I conceive to be more worthy of emphasis than reading, writing, and arithmetic.

For the three R's I substitute nature and human nature as the epitome of educational studies. Of these twins neither should be neglected, although the latter is the more important. Until lately while little attention was paid even to human nature, nature received no attention at all. As soon as the scholar entered the school the door was shut behind him on nature.

Nevertheless in suppressing the exaggerated emphasis which has been unintentionally directed to mechanical exercises in the "three R's," I am convinced that studies in nature and human nature will carry with them the acquisition of power to read, write, and cipher in a manner which will satisfy the most mechanical of examiners so long as he remembers that examinations were made for the child and not the child for examinations.



T. G. ROOPER.

In the primary grades the first aim of the teacher must be to develop the best side of human nature in his scholars, and this can only be done by making them acquainted through literary studies with the best side of human nature among their fellow-creatures.

### DISTINCTION BETWEEN ACQUIRING FACTS AND EXPRESSING FACTS.

In dealing with those subjects which have a direct bearing upon either nature or human nature, an important distinction must be drawn between instruction in *facts* and instruction in *language*—language without which the child cannot clearly comprehend facts or communicate them to others.

The distinction between the study of facts and the study of language is obscured because the study of language itself, from a particular point of view, happens to include some of the most important facts which can possibly be studied.

The analysis of children's studies may be carried further. We may draw a distinction between the process of *acquiring* facts from the lips of the teacher and the processes of *expressing* facts by speech or hand.

The first training of the child must be based upon systematic cultivation of the powers of observation and imagination. Closely interwoven with these is the cultivation of powers of describing in correct language what is observed or imagined. The manual training supports and amplifies both the faculty of observation and the faculty of expression.

For the purpose of the teacher it is no disadvantage that what I have called lessons in facts cannot be severed as by the stroke of a sharp knife from lessons in language. In the early stages of education a sense of the connection and the mutual relation of various branches of study is hard to establish in the child's mind. The main fault of the present routine in the lower grades is the isolated way in which each subject is treated. Doubtless, for the advanced student, the isolation of his study is indispensable to a thorough knowledge of its detail. In the early stages of mental exercise this isolation of the various branches of study from one another tends to hinder the harmonious development of the faculties.

The first and most important kind of learning, then, is that of "things and their names," which is, unfortunately, very liable to be confused with the study of the "names of things." The study of "things and their names" comes first; it should be followed, and to a great extent accompanied, by a study both of the names of things and the ways of making correct predications by aid of those names.

### ACQUIREMENT OF FACTS.

*I. Stories from Home Life and History.*—What, then, are the "things and their names" with which our study should commence? I would put, in the first place, the narration to the class (or, if the teacher finds narration uncongenial, reading aloud before the class), stories like Mrs. Gatty's "Parables from Nature;" Jean Ingelow's "Stories told to a Child;" "Fables of Æsop;" stories of kindness to animals; stories of courage and strength of character, especially in little children, and Grimm's "Household Tales." By aid of questions of the right sort the children may be led to express their answers in complete sentences, and in this way they will gradually acquire considerable power of expressing themselves in correct English, while their ears will be trained to detect common defects of grammar, pronunciation, and syntax. It is clear that all stories of this kind are centered in the home and home-life, and the family, the axis round which all early teaching should revolve. These lessons will make most if not all children reflect, and they will be also directly useful as language lessons. No lesson to young children is complete unless it teaches them, besides other things, these two additional ones—reflection and expression of their thoughts. I do not except either number, or music, or even handwork. It is much more difficult to teach children to talk English than to pass in reading. Yet those who cannot talk English can rarely follow the sense of a good English book with sufficient ease to make the study of English literature a pleasure.

Next to stories such as I have described, but again by no means sharply divided from them, I would place stories from history, and while I would give the preference to stories that are connected with the locality in which the child lives, I would also appeal to the histories of nations, and especially of Greece and Rome. Many of the stories of both Greek and Roman heroism are as near to the understanding of the simplest child as are the reminiscences of his grandmother. No boy, or girl either, can listen to the story of the faith of Romulus, the courage of Scævola, the sacrifice of Curtius, or Spartan endurance and heroism without being elevated and inspired by these examples. These stories, if carefully narrated, like those to which I have previously alluded, will also train the children to reflect and to use their own speech organs and quicken the sense of hearing. The advantage of such stories is that they are worth the concentrated attention of adults as well as of children, and time spent in working them up need not be grudged.



**Geography.**—An introduction to geography should be made by means of conversational lessons on the construction of plans and maps of the school and neighborhood, and on relief models of the locality. Inasmuch as this study may be based upon simple but convenient measurement, it forms a valuable connecting link between modern scientific methods and descriptive knowledge.

The first aim of these local maps is not so much to convey a knowledge of the names of streets or villages, but rather to show the method by which hills, rivers, roads, and places are laid down on a map.

The abstract is being taught through the concrete, and that is why the first maps and models to be studied should be those of the child's own neighborhood and not of some remote and unknown region, or, worse still, of an imaginary district.

The youngest children of the junior standards will be able to reflect with interest, and even pleasure, as they follow on a map the course of the stream which they have themselves walked along, that there is a reason for every wide-spreading flowery meadow and every overhanging rock, and that causes which they cannot explain without help, they can ascertain by asking their teacher.

Stories of explorations on the Nile, in Australia, or in the Polar regions, if briefly told and well illustrated, will interest the youngest children and enlarge their ideas.

**Plants and Animals.**—Connected with the study of the surface of the ground should be some acquaintance with the common birds, beasts, fishes, and insects, which they may meet with or pick up in their walks. No school should be without its aquarium or its vivarium, and the children may be relied on to bring, when required, cats or rabbits or doves, to illustrate special lessons. At this stage of their study the children should concern themselves more with what an animal is like, what it does, and what it eats, and how it breathes, swims, or flies, than with reasons and explanations; such discussions belong to a later period of school life. Classification, too, should be incidental, as a thing led up to in the last resort rather than the primary object. Plants and animals should not be abstracted from their natural surroundings, as when studied in laboratories, but in the closest connection with them. The living organism should be studied as part of the panorama which surrounds the child, in which he is himself included, and not as a specimen in a museum, dried and ticketed.

As it is an object not to be lost sight of in all the instruction of young children to connect subject with subject, studies in natural history should contain conduct lessons and cultivate a desire to be kind to animals and avoid giving unnecessary pain. The teacher's skill in managing young children consists largely in finding ways of connecting together not merely the parts of one study, but different studies with each other.

**Number.**—Instead of monotonous exercise in addition and subtraction of numbers, so large that they present no picture to the child's mind whatever, I would urge teachers to commence with a recapitulation of the analysis of number between 1 and 20, aided by the ball-frame, number pictures, cubes, and varied devices for making the study concrete instead of abstract, and intelligent instead of mechanical. This visual study should be accompanied by much varied oral application and easy reckoning.

I would have practice in all the four so-called rules worked out at first in low figures not exceeding three times twelve. I would have the usual signs (+ — × ÷) for addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division taught by the actual use of them and not by explanations. I would teach the way of representing the operation of division by position; I mean by writing the dividend over the divisor, for this would familiarize the children with the mode of writing vulgar fractions as well as half-dollars and quarters. The idea of a fraction should be, without explanation of it, implanted in the mind by actual exercises in measuring and cutting up in equal pieces. The common confusion in thought be-

tween *measuring* wholes and *severing* wholes should be made impossible by concrete practice in the two processes. The children should try how often a six-inch rule will measure a yard-stick, and also into how many strips of six inches they can cut up a yard of paper. They will *see with their hands* that measuring is a different process from dividing, although both processes may lead to the same numerical answer. The distinction is important, as I think a good deal of dubious social philosophy at the present day is based on a confusion between them. There are things which you can measure but not divide, and one of these is credit.

The use of the decimal notation should be taught at this stage. There should also be exercises in practical weighing and practice in estimating weight. A varied occupation of great use would be the arrangement of half a dozen or eight little bags of sand containing respectively  $\frac{1}{4}$  oz.,  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz.,  $\frac{3}{4}$  oz., 1 oz.,  $1\frac{1}{4}$  oz.,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  oz.,  $1\frac{3}{4}$  oz., 2 oz. With practice, children might learn to estimate these weights with a considerable degree of accuracy. The first practice consists in trying to arrange the bags in order of their weight. The younger the children the more delicate is the sense of fine distinctions, and the older the scholar the harder it becomes to teach him to take notice of them.

Constant application of the knowledge of number to the common occupations of daily life would accustom the children to deal readily with all those sums which require thought, and even those which involve two operations, such as first adding and then multiplying. As useful practice and a good way of connecting the number lesson with reading, I recommend the plan of writing on the blackboard a story containing some simple numerical statement which the class will reckon after reading.

I attach great importance to the classification of the science of number under the head of instruction in objects, because, although in its advanced stage it is the most abstract of all knowledge, in the beginning it ought to be kept as concrete as possible. I should commence it with the study of objects from a particular point of view—that is, in their numerical aspect. The study of number should be carefully and systematically kept in view during the instruction which is given in other subjects. For example, in the plan of the school, the construction and use of the scale will form also a number lesson. So also in the study of the plan of the neighborhood number knowledge may be no less usefully applied. The local map showing neighboring towns and villages, suggests the application of the knowledge of number in measuring distances and in finding out how long it will take to walk to some place at two miles, three miles, or four miles an hour and similar exercises.

The comparative lengths of neighboring rivers or the height of neighboring hills suggests the use of subtraction in a concrete form. The connection between elementary geography and the study of number is obvious, but the truth is there are few conversational lessons, whether in history or natural history, or even stories descriptive of family life, where applications of the knowledge of number may not be introduced in a natural and interesting manner. The intelligent apprehension of number has been much hindered by the isolated position which the study has usually occupied in the school routine.

**Substances and Forces.**—As a useful source for lessons in substances and forces I strongly advise a description of a number of simple and interesting experiments which are performed without special apparatus and can be mostly repeated by children at home. They familiarize the learners with substances and forces which they will afterwards in higher standards or schools study with precision and completeness. They may be play, but they are play with a purpose and usefully relieve the strain of more exacting studies. As one example: Tom Tit bids you take two fresh eggs, boil the one hard and leave the other uncooked. By aid of a strong elastic band passed round the longer axis you can fasten either egg on the end of a string. Then tie the

strings to a gas bracket and let the eggs hang down side by side. Then give each egg a sharp twist and let the children watch them spin. Now lay hold of both eggs and stop their spinning. One of them as soon as you release it begins to spin again. Let them guess whether it is the boiled or the unboiled egg. Then explain the reason.

#### EXPRESSION OF FACTS.

*Connection of Reading and Object Lessons.*—I now come to those subjects which are primarily concerned with the expression of facts, although, as I have said, they are not sharply divided from those which deal chiefly with the *acquisition* of facts. The chief of these is the practical study of the English language. The aim of it is to understand, speak, and write English. Whatsoever is not essential to this aim is not a necessary part of the routine of work in elementary schools.

The first steps in the study of English are conversational object lessons in which the children learn to answer oral questions in complete sentences. The same object lesson should be given more than once for different purposes. The first time it will be given with the view of imparting interesting information by the judicious guidance of the children's powers of observation. When the facts have been acquired, and the children's minds have been stored with a set of mental images, the lesson may be given again with a special view to the formation of the verbal expression for those images. It may be used a third time for a writing or transcription lesson with the view of showing children how to express in writing words and sentences which they have dealt with orally.

The first point is to procure an answer from each child, which shall be clearly uttered, deliberate, and audible to all the class. The emphasis also must be rightly placed. The teacher should then proceed by the method of analysis. He starts from a sentence, short but complete, descriptive of some fact that has been noted either in an object or a picture. Then the sentence is shown to be made up of separate words, which may be chalked on the blackboard and the number of them counted. Then one of the words may be shown to be made up of syllables. Finally, a one-syllabled word may be divided into sounds, and thus we get to word-building, which is the basis of all language study. By dividing words so far as possible according to their etymology—that is, by separating the stem of the word from its affix and suffix, you may prepare the child unconsciously for the more advanced study of English composition.

When a few sentences have been correctly worked out and written up on the blackboard, the children may copy them on a slate. When copied they should be read out aloud by some of the children individually so that the teacher may see whether the right emphasis has been caught or not. On this plan good reading will be seen to be a kind of good talking. If reading lessons were thus based on varied object teaching, the children would acquire the command of a far larger vocabulary, both for reading and speaking, than they derive from the exclusive use of readers in which the vocabulary is studiously limited.

*Forms of Sentences.*—By degrees the different forms of sentences will be noted, and if noted may be easily named, for a technical name is only tiresome and difficult when you have to learn it before making acquaintance with the thing signified by it. Teach things and their names—things first and then their names—and the lesson is not dry. It is not, however, at all necessary to insist on the use of technical nomenclature. When attractive stories, such as Grimm's "Household Tales" are reproduced in sentences made up by the class, the children will soon learn to mark the difference between "You are right," "Are you right?" "Do it right." They will easily recognize the change in the order of words according as they express a statement, a question, or a command, and they will soon understand the meaning of the full stop, the note of interrogation, and the note of exclamation, to say nothing of commas.

They will also learn the importance of the order of words in a sentence and reflect upon the difference between "I may do it" and "May I do it?"

These things will, as it were, slide into the mind imperceptibly in the ordinary course of the daily use of language as applied to the expression of facts or the reproduction of narrative.

*Connection between Reading, Writing, and Speaking.*—The true preparation for the reading lesson is object teaching, so that from the study of fact we pass to the expression of the fact in a correct sentence. The next stage is to express the oral sentence in a written form on the blackboard. Lastly, the learner passes back from the written sentence to the oral answer and so to the object. The links in the chain should be gone over both ways. The teacher after examining before the class a picture, say of a waterfall, will write on the blackboard a few sentences descriptive of it. These sentences the children will read, and they will afterwards point out in the picture the objects which have been described in words. After reading, the next stage is to transcribe the sentences from the blackboard onto the slate or paper. Thus, while at first, speaking passes into reading, and reading into writing, afterward writing passes into reading and reading into speaking. The three exercises are closely connected and interwoven.

The next stage which, however, belongs to the second year, is the connection between spelling and writing, in which the sentence is not transcribed from a blackboard or book, but taken down direct from the lips of a person reading it; that is dictation. Dictation is not a mere exercise in spelling. It includes practice in catching and recognizing words and following the meaning of a passage read.

*Grammar and Composition.*—As a further introduction to the practical use of English I believe that if an object or a picture has been carefully studied, and the facts about it stated in simple sentences and written on the blackboard, children will be able to do progressive exercises like the following:

- (a) Write down the names of, say, six things which have been learnt about the picture or object, *e. g.*, A "Seaside Scene."—Spade, sand, sea, water, ship, sail.
- (b) Write down short sentences about the things, *e. g.*, "The girls dig in the sand."

In the latter exercise the correction will deal with five points:

- (1) The meaning of the sentence. (Is it sense?)
- (2) The form of the sentence and the position of the words. (Does the child say what he means to say?)
- (3) The form of the words. (Spelling.)
- (4) The stops, full-stop, or mark of question. Capitals.
- (5) Writing, finish, and joining of letters.

*Recitation.*—Closely connected with the reading lesson, if reading is what I have described it, a kind of good talking is recitation. Many teachers already make a good deal out of this subject, but I wish that the thoughtful preparation which is given to it in a few schools was the rule in all. I think that it is quite worth while for every one, and especially teachers, to go through a short course of elocutionary exercises. There is really nothing short of actual original composition which so makes the student realize the meaning of a poem, as having to recite it with due emphasis.

*Music.*—I should like to find the songs sung by standards I. and II. closely connected with the studies. Humor should by no means be omitted. I often think that time must be wasted in memorizing the words of songs. Could not the time spent be better filled with musical exercises and a greater variety of songs if they were read from a song book? The children should be helped to read the words of the song by the usual word-building exercises, and in this way reading lessons would assist the music lessons. I do not think it would be very difficult to find points in connection between the songs which are sung and some of the branches of oral instruction, so that music as well as other studies may be an integral part of the whole course and not an ornamental appendage.



*Drawing.*—Drawing, I think, like music and number, has suffered by being isolated from other studies. Surely handwriting, for one thing, should be taught in connection with drawing. I have observed persons who cared little for drawing while it was a mere exercise in copying curved lines take great interest in it when they were taught to utilize their skill, while acquiring it, in some practical way.

There are many simple objects—they must, of course, for this purpose be simple objects—which a child who has used a pencil at all may attempt to draw; as examples, I would give the strap-shaped petal of the dandelion for a child who has been examining that flower under the teacher's direction.

If children try to reproduce both by word of mouth or by pencil, or, as Mr. Alma-Tadema would have it, by brush, some fact which the judicious selection of the teacher has brought under their notice, they will take an interest in fact, language, and drawing far greater than when they study the three in isolation.

Natural Science, Philology, and Art are not one profession but three professions. In the beginning it is not so. The preliminary studies for all three should be interwoven. At that stage the three are one.

*Handwork.*—Connected and intimately associated with drawing should be handwork. The best exercises for a primary school appear to be modeling and cutting out shapes from exact measurement in paper or even cardboard.

Many teachers are busy at the present time in devising courses of modeling and cardboard work suitable for young children. It is too early at present to insist on the absolute superiority of any one of these schemes, if indeed uniformity in the matter is really desirable. Meanwhile everyone who makes serious and intelligent experiments in this direction is deserving well of his country.

*Playground and Games.*—Drill ought surely to be introduced into every school, and some pains should be taken to help the children to play games in the playground. I observe that while in some schools the children find out games for themselves, in many cases they run aimlessly about, amusing themselves in a very aimless, spiritless, and uninteresting manner.

There are so many games which groups of children from a dozen to sixty can take part in that it would be worth while for young teachers to show the children how to play them. After all, one of the most important parts of early training is to learn to play fairly and without loss of temper in an exciting game. Although the moral value of games in the playground need by no means be explained to the players, they get all the advantages of the game without being aware that there is more purpose in it than mere amusement and pastime.

#### THE VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL CONNECTION OF STUDIES IN THE TABLE.

In presenting to you a table of studies and occupations suitable for the primary school you will see that besides suggesting a classification, which is not usual in this country, namely, studies in which facts are acquired as distinguished from studies in which facts are expressed, I have also suggested the heads of a specimen group of studies sufficient for a week or ten days. I wish to illustrate a principle in the selection of the

subjects which I have here made. The principle is this. Whereas in the syllabus of studies hitherto drawn up in most schools there is, as a rule, a connection between the successive lessons which are given in each separate subject, there is seldom any connection between the subjects themselves.

In the geography of America, for instance, the scheme of lessons usually commences with the physical features and ends with the political divisions of the country. Thus, if the heads of the lessons on America are arranged in a column, some connection will be apparent between each of them. The items will not follow at haphazard.

A similar order will be noticeable in the study of history and most other subjects. The heads when arranged in a vertical column will be seen to be connected. It has, however, not been the rule to attempt any connection between the geography lesson and the history lesson. A lesson in geography in the morning has not been connected with a lesson in history in the afternoon and the arithmetic lesson has had no bearing on either.

In my table I have shown the kind of way in which it may be attempted to form links, or, at any rate, points of contact between the various studies of the day's routine, as well as between the previous and subsequent portions of the same particular study.

For instance, on referring to my table you will see that the stories of *The Lion and the Mouse* and *Pocahontas* both illustrate the virtues of gratitude and kindness (helpfulness). The exercises in reading, word-building, and transcription or dictation are connected with one of the stories. The recitation illustrates the same spirit of willingness to make the hearts of others glad. The song repeats the same theme. You will note what I call both vertical and horizontal connections in the table of studies.



"LEANING ON HIS NEIGHBOR."

Similarly in another sphere of thought the neighboring river (or creek) is connected with the buttercups that grow along its waters, with the familiar fish which every boy can catch and keep in a glass for observation, with the simple experiment of the fountain showing the pressure of water, with the measurement of the river and drawing a plan of it to scale, with the drawing lesson in which a buttercup leaf is delineated, and with handwork in which buttercup leaves are modeled.

I do not expect to see this principle carried out with abject obedience. I might myself, for instance, have linked all the subjects into one group, whereas I have divided them into two. I am sure, however, that this





## II. The Practice of Some Progressive Schools.

### June Days at Normal.

By WALTER J. KENYON.

Seven miles south of the Palmer house in Chicago, a twenty-acre park of grove and campus and tiny lakelet is spread. To-day it somehow is suggestive of an oasis, so encircled is it in the arms of the spreading city. Ten years ago, however, it lay in the midst of an unbroken expanse of prairie. And yet the city's ad-



COL. FRANCIS WAYLAND PARKER.

vance has been in nowise an offence to the beauty seeing eye, for Englewood is a delightful suburb, and its broad, tree-shaded, and well-groomed boulevards seem hardly less than an extension of Normal park itself.

Here in this retreat are located the various buildings of the Cook County normal school—that institution which, since Colonel Parker came into the West, has gradually become a Mecca for the teachers of Christendom; this advisedly, for its lodestone has reached as far as Syria and Iceland and Australia. Here in this big family circle of five hundred members, the proposition of individual responsibility and individual freedom has passed beyond the experimental stage, into the assured reality of daily routine.

When a school supported by the people rises superior to the stress of politics it is to be congratulated. And when it has come to this estate through its own purity of purpose, and by the force of its real achievement, then it wins our reverence. So stands the Cook County normal school to-day, in its ascetic and benign triumph; and when its name has passed into educational history, the voice of its master spirit shall be a stimulating echo in the hearts of all teachers to come, and his name will be "a star to men forever."

A hundred and thirty student teachers are in daily touch with the children. A few have won white hair in a quarter of a century of teaching. The majority have had years of experience in the school-room. The junior class is made up, for the most part, of those who yet have their spurs to win. Veteran or tyro, they push their research with the same fresh enthusiasm that throws a halo about the lives of the historic Old World teachers.

The park pays its steady tribute to the work. Each class has its adopted tree. At the earliest overtures of spring a study of these selected trees begins, with respect to their annual awakening and growth; a study whose growing sympathy almost invests each with a personality. The little lake is full of fish. The children brought many of them and love them all. When circumstances favor fish study, the genius of the laboratory, armed with a scoop net, inveigles a school of them

in doors. Here in the aquarium they make acquaintance, at close quarters, with their friends, the children, and are by and by let go again. This field of observation, as all others, is made the basis for oral and written language, number, painting, and drawing. About this time, too, the singing lesson is very apt to bring in a song of the gold fish or the mermaid, or something whose world is a water world. The pupil's oral and written work finds its way to the school press room whence are returned printed sheets of the same. From these the child reads his own thought and gets the printed form. This way of learning to read engages his affections more closely than did the old Bug on the Rug and Cat on the Mat chronicles, and is found to effect its purpose in a highly satisfactory degree.

The dandelion festival is one of the most delightful of the spring events. Late in April the campus is a smiling waste of these flowers. A few days later the same fields are tiny forests of nodding white balls. A chapel exercise is devoted to this theme. Every one appears with a dandelion and a smile. Some of the tots may come up wearing dandelion garlands. Pretty flower myths are told the assembled family by the children, with a freedom from self that never ceases to be a wonder to the onlooker. Dandelion songs and songs of spring are given. Colonel Parker reads some sweet tribute to the flowers, and that, with a hymn, perhaps, is a morning exercise occupying twenty minutes. The observation work for a day or two will deal largely with the dandelion; and, like the

"Flower in the crannied wall,"

it will be studied

"All in all, root and all,"

more or less intensively according to the grade.

Speaking of this flower study takes us to the botanical garden. Over where the southwest campus used to be, there now flourishes a farm of some two acres in extent. The children planted it and the children own it. This entire garden is divided into beds allotted to the various grades. Each grade is divided into committees, and each committee is responsible for a subdivision of its grade bed. Thanks to Mr. Jackman's skilful planning, to the grade teachers' hearty co-operation, and lastly to the children's unwaning enthusiasm, this little farm presents an appearance that would delight the eye of a most experienced garden truckster. The apportionment of the land, the staking of the beds, and planting of the rows is as precise as the metric system itself. Indeed, the latter was made use of by the pupils in their work of planting; and in the class-room number work, based on garden problems, the children have become about as familiar with centimeters, meters, and dekameters as they are with their fingers and toes. Before the school year closes, a fine succession of corn, beets, potatoes, and other things of promise will have risen in the garden. Next fall this crop will be levied upon for purposes of nature study. Thus these children, in a very practical way, have planted and raised much of the material for their autumn work.

The history and literature are related here also. At this season the myths of Perserphone and Ceres and others similar are given in the lower grades, while much of the selected poetry is on pastoral themes.

A considerable amount of the pupils' work is accomplished out of regular hours. With a large part of them, school begins just after breakfast and ends only in time for the evening meal;—this by their own choice. And indeed it is very naturally so. For



A GARDEN CLASS.

all their centers of interest, their works, their plays, their every attachment to the home fire-side, are located within the school and its grounds. Not that these children work all the time, for in seasonable hours the tennis courts, the base-ball field, and the lesser play-grounds in the groves are a pandemonium of healthful romp. And in the midst of it all, on some by-way or other, you are likely to brush by a portly gentleman, strolling slowly, and with a broad-brimmed army hat upon him. Perhaps too, you will catch the half dozen notes of that tune of his, which so many hundreds have heard, and which none may ever recognize; and yet very pleasant to listen to, not louder than the drone of a bee in passing, nor more far-reaching. That is the Colonel.

The assembly hall has the fittings of a complete gymnasium. Most of the pupils, including the professional classes, wear gymnastic costume at the lesson in physical culture. Here again the large volunteer classes, held after regular hours, do the most effective work.

From eight in the morning until after five at night the sloyd room is the scene of unceasing work; by classes during the regular session; by voluntary workers before and after. In these voluntary periods the spectacle of devotees of both sexes and of all sizes, ages, and degrees manipulating knives, saws, and chisels, may at first appall the visitor; but as a matter of fact, during a period of five years, no gore has ever been spilt worthy of mention.

It is a busy hive throughout. Perhaps the most restful work in the house is the library. Absolute quiet is enforced here, among the users of these 12,000 volumes. It is said that at the beginning of the present regime this department contained 200 books. And many and unique have been the methods employed to fill the shelves. The writer remembers a parent's reception, given in the form of an evening entertainment, at which the price of admission was a book! The result was a magnificent contribution to the library, made up of the highest lines of literature, in many cases given in sets, instead of single volumes.

The professional students, having plenty to do, are given, if anything, to overwork. Yet they know how to enjoy themselves. Entertainments, games, and gymnastics prove an effective leaven to the work. Students' hall is notably free from the petty regulations governing the generality of schools. Each student is a law unto herself and comes and goes and works, with few restrictions.

The faculty of the school meet at Col. Parker's residence each Monday evening. The members of this weekly round table are privileged to know the master at his best and freest. An arm-chair and slippers and disciples eager for his words are the condi-



COL. PARKER IN HIS STUDY.

hallowed with memories of past strivings and achievements and attachments.

Here have been formed those friendships in harness, which do not perish with the years, nor can they be severed by distance; but each year grow sweeter and truer, outliving the storms and stress of life as surely as did the noble friendship of Froebel and Middendorf.

#### Pres. G. Stanley Hall on Col. Parker's School.

I spent the entire day, Friday, May 18, 1894, in Col. Parker's school, and with him and his teachers, as I have done before. We visited nearly, if not quite every, room, and I came away with a large bundle of papers, pamphlets, and books, showing the work of both instructors and pupils, which I have been reading diligently since. Of course I ought, as I should like so much to do were I not tied to my own work, to spend a week or two there in the study of details; but one who is used to visiting schools, can catch the main features in a rapid way from even a brief visit.

I came away with a yet higher impression of the value and the soundness of this work. The improvement since my visit of two years ago is most marked in the upper primary grades, where, perhaps, it was most needed. The points that strike me are the harmony of work and spirit among the instructors; the co-operative feeling which permits no waste in "jangles"; and the great efficiency of all and especially of three or four of the instructors, which I wish it were not invidious to name.

Best of all is the great conception that nature and man are the two chief objects of study, and that the intrinsic interests that center about these should subordinate reading, writing, and parts of arithmetic. Such subordination of form to substance as is now really carried out there, is exactly the opposite of the too prevalent tendencies to bring form and pedantic details to the front and let substance drift into the background. The admirable treatment of myth to warm the heart toward nature; the copious use of natural objects and the garden; the amazing readiness of the children to write, draw, and even sing, alone, without self-consciousness; the general unity of subjects which allow concentration full scope; and the sympathetic insight into child life,—all these features make a most striking ensemble, and as beneficent as it is striking. The amazing influence that this school as a whole, and its principals and teachers individually, have had on lower grades of instruction in this country, has been surprisingly wide as well as deep. To weaken that influence now, when it seems just attaining the full but—as

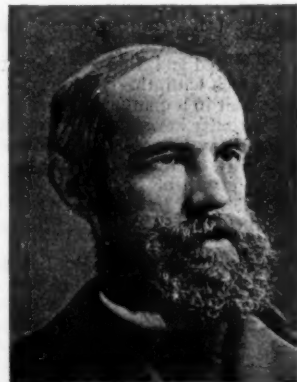


MRS. FRANK STUART PARKER.

tions for his finest mood; or else the negligée of his study where his stub pen has only lately given to paper the last lines of the volume so long expected.

No picture of the later C. C. N. S. would be complete without reference to Supt. Orville T. Bright, of the county. To his integrity of purpose, his breadth of view and his will of iron the school has owed its life on more than one occasion. Every teacher must regard with gratitude the policy of this man, a giant in all ways, who interposed his massive self between petty politics and that heritage of all children to come, and sternly ordered, "HANDS OFF!"

The reunion breakfast of the Alumni Association comes once a year on the occasion of the outgoing class planting their tree. At that time the old Assembly hall takes on a gay aspect indeed, bedecked with boughs and bunting. And of all features of the tree-planting ceremony, some of them merry and some impressive, none can stir the heart more than the singing of Auld Lang Syne. For these old walls, ringing now with the song, are resonant too with echoes of seasons gone. Their shadows are



G. STANLEY HALL.



everything good in education must be—slow maturity of its usefulness, would be a national calamity.

I have read with care the criticisms and examination papers in criticism of the school, and have received various publications attacking it. I think they must impress an impartial mind as due not so much to the natural criticisms of extreme conservatism or to personal spite as to some entirely extraneous, alien, and perhaps material interest. I know nothing of the matter, whatever, but think I feel as the astronomers who find perturbations not entirely accounted for by any known or obvious cause.

I have one or two minor criticisms. First, I think physiology entirely condemns the extreme side attitude, while the tip of the seat and the incessant writing make it all the worse. My second attitude is rather a desideratum and may have a personal element. I think if Colonel Parker would look into the results of the new psychology and of the technical methods of child study, he would find unexpected resources of strength in his own directions and also more effective modes of expressing his own admirable ideas. I am, very truly yours,

G. STANLEY HALL.

Clark University, Worcester, Mass., May 21, '94.

See also reference to Col. Parker's latest educational work, page 736.

## New York School of Pedagogy.

UNIVERSITY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Instruction is offered in five Major and seven Minor courses, those designated by an asterisk in the following are:

**I. History of Education.**—This course aims to give, in connected form, the main facts of the history of teaching and schools. The relation of Greek thought to the Alexandrian, Roman, and Early Christian schools is investigated. Special attention is given to the period between 800 and 1,500. Agricola, Erasmus, Colet, Comenius, Luther, Montaigne, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, and many other prominent educators are studied. Special attention is given to the rise of Naturalism in teaching. The history of education in Germany, France, England, and America is considered, attention being given to the establishment of the free public-school system of our own country. Special topics are assigned to members of the class, the results of which are critically analyzed. This work is carried on throughout by means of lectures, seminary work, written themes, and the preparation of charts and maps, showing in one view the connection each part of the study bears to the whole.—4 hours a week.

**II. Experimental and Physiological Psychology.**—Elementary presentation of the most important facts of the anatomy and physiology of the nervous system; its general relations to consciousness; cerebral localization; nervous and mental fatigue; influence of atmosphere conditions on mental life. The course will be largely composed of practical laboratory work in physiological experiments and measurements; statistics of various mental phenomena will be collected and computed. Work will be given in the construction, care, and arrangement of apparatus, in the use of tools and in laboratory management. Those who wish will have opportunity for practical work on the nervous system.—4 hours a week.

**III. Descriptive Psychology.**—A detailed study of the phenomena of mental life. An accepted text-book of psychology will be read, and the works of leading authorities in the science will be consulted and compared.—4 hours a week.

**IV. Institutes of Pedagogy.**—This course is comprised under the following heads: 1. An examination of the commonly accepted principles and maxims of education to determine their scope and limitations. 2. The educative values of the different subjects of study, and to what extent these values are determined by mode of presentation. 3. The co-ordination or concentration of studies. Preparation by students of courses of study on the principle of co-ordination, with working directions. 4. Motor training. Its correlation to the various branches of study. 5. Tests for fatigue. School work as conditioned by fatigue. Home work and study. 6. Homogeneous grading and individual teaching. 7. Interest. 8. Child study, involving observations, tests, and measurements to determine intellectual, physical, and moral tendencies. How method of teaching is conditioned by these. 9. Adolescence. 10. A study of De Garmo's "Essentials of Method," with studies growing out of this—viz., the "Logic of Sense Perception," by Dr. William T. Harris, Lange's "Apperception," etc. 11. Spencer's "Education," and the heuristic method. 12. Derived principles of method. 13. Application of these in the teaching of subjects in elementary and secondary schools with required presentation of lessons for criticism and discussion. 14. The literature of systematic pedagogy. 15. Reading and discussion of Rosenkranz's "Philosophy of Education." 16. School buildings, grounds, lighting, heating, ventilation, furniture, sanitation, apparatus, and equipment, discussed with reference to the best standards and the reasons which determine these. Their practical application.

During the year students will visit certain schools of high rank in New York city and vicinity for observation and study.

The work in this course will be by lectures and seminary work. Opportunity will be afforded for special study of the teaching of a chosen subject.—4 hours a week.

**\*V. Comparative Systems of Education.**—Historic development of the national systems of Germany, France, and England. Relation of church and state to the problem of general education. Principle of free and compulsory education. Administration and supervision of schools. Training of teachers. Character and scope of elementary education. Technical, commercial, and industrial education. Female education. Ancient and modern languages and sciences in secondary education. Higher education.

The work is carried on by lectures and original investigation by the members of the class, the latter extending the work of the course so as to cover the school systems of Austria, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, and Scotland.

Students are expected to be thoroughly acquainted with our own school system. The comparison between American and foreign conditions of education is constantly kept in view.—1 hour a week.

**VI. Physiological Pedagogics.**—Anthropometrical measurements. The physiology of brain action. Explanation of the structure and use of the eye, with tests to ascertain marked defects of sight. Same of the ear. Postures and the muscles involved. Deformity of body caused at school. Fatigue and its manifestations. Physiology of exercise. Physical training. Treatment of children affected with nervous derangements, as chorea, etc. School diseases. Physical conditions of childhood. Growth. School hygiene and sanitation, etc.—2 hours a week.

**\*VII. Aesthetics in Relation to Education.**—The art impulse and its historical development. (a) The sense of feeling for form and color; (b) the genesis of art; (c) the historical development of the fine arts.

Educational significance of Aesthetics: (a) In elementary education; (b) in secondary education; (c) in higher education.

Means of culture: (A) Theoretical: (a) study of nature in landscape, sea and sky; (b) study of art works; (c) study of art history; (d) decoration of school-rooms; (e) influence of music in elementary and secondary education. (B) Practical: (a) modeling, drawing, and color work; (b) logical order and relation to other school studies; (c) ideal course in elementary art education.—1 hour a week.

**\*VIII. School Law and the Principles Underlying It.**—1 hour a week.

**IX. History of Philosophy.**—A brief historical survey and exposition of the principal conceptions and problems of philosophy.—2 hours a week.

**X. Ethics.**—Theoretical ethics, including a comparative study of recent ethical writers in order to reach by the critical method a sound ethical position. The application of ethical theory to education.—1 hour a week.

**XI. School Organization, Management, and Administration.**—The design of this course is to give opportunity for a study of the course of instruction, methods of teaching, working directions, grading, management, and administration of a system of schools. The study will be made by visits of observation, by written reports, and by discussions, under the direction of the professor of the Institutes of Pedagogy.

Many towns and small cities lie close to New York, and favorable opportunities are afforded for this important study.—2 hours a week.

**XII. Original Investigation Leading to Required Thesis.**—The work in this course will be under the direction of the professor of the History of Education, or of Psychology, or of the Institutes of Pedagogy, according to the subject of investigation chosen.—6 hours a week.

### ENROLMENT OF STUDENTS.

For enrolment the student must present a diploma from a college of arts and science, or from a normal school, higher course, or testimonials of general scholarship equal to that required for such a diploma. In addition to those who are candidates for degrees, a third class of students may be enrolled, to be known as auditors. To this class may be admitted all such as commend themselves to the faculty as prepared to receive benefit from the lectures, but such students cannot be candidates for a degree.

### FACULTY FOR 1893-94.

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LANGDON S. THOMPSON, PH. D., Lecturer, Aesthetics in relation to Education.

FREDERICK MONTESER, PH. D., PH. D., Lecturer, Comparative Systems of Education.

## Co-ordination of Studies

IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES OF THE SCHOOL OF OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE.

By CLARENCE E. MELENEY.

A faithful report of the course of study and the application of the principles taught in the department of the science and art of teaching would scarcely indicate the views and position advocated by the Teachers college. The school exists as the working laboratory of the department; it affords the opportunity for observation and practice, and also for the educational experiments necessary to be made in such an institution. It is evident that the application of principles and the realization of ideals is necessarily circumscribed by the condition and character of the school. It is doubtful whether the same school can ever serve as a model for observation and practice and also furnish the opportunity for the necessary experiments in pedagogy.

The course of study is not an ideal one. It depends upon what the school can do, while at the same time it provides material and opportunity for the development of all the faculties of the children and for the acquisition of appropriate knowledge. The school is, therefore, only one of the objects of study offered to the student of the college. The researches extend to all available schools and systems of education. However desirable it may be for the school of observation to furnish the ideal conditions for study, the fact of its limitations does not curtail the work of the department, nor expose it to the charge of inconsistency. I am now prepared to acknowledge that our school has not yet been able to live up to the ideas of the department, though tending in that direction.

The contribution to the important subject of co-ordination of studies in the elementary school was solicited to show the practical working of the principles; if it fails to rise to the ideal the explanation must be found in the conditions under which the school labors. The limited space allowed for this article precludes any attempt at elaboration of our work, and necessitates a brief summary only.

The course of study is based upon the recognized principles underlying the work of every well-organized system of elementary instruction. These principles are based upon the nature of the child and the nature of his environment, recognizing the native powers and natural activity of the child, and the forces acting upon and through him—that is, all nature and all human influences. I shall not take time to show how the kindergarten acts upon these principles; probably the best exemplification of co-ordination of studies is in the kindergarten. Here the naturalistic and the humanistic groups find ample scope, while the modes of expression in the various occupations, language, and games constitute the formal training. The primary school is the extension of the kindergarten, and this in time merges into the higher elementary or grammar grades.

The humanistic group of studies beginning in the kindergarten and extending into and through the elementary school includes fables, mythical lore, folk stories, stories of the Bible, stories of little people in our own day and time and of other lands, biography, history, literature in verse and prose. This group constitutes the chief material for character building; its chief value is ethical, the intellectual value is secondary, but this is not the place to discuss educative values. The child is susceptible to the humanistic environment, and is more easily and earlier influenced by contact with the product of the human intellect through the medium of the imagination. Our course may be indicated by the mention of characteristic subjects of the elementary school.

The following have been drawn upon or used as reading matter: Miss Poulsson's *In the Child's World*, Grimm's *Fairy Tales*, Andersen's *Fairy Tales*, Aesop's *Fables*, Scudder's *Fables* and *Folk Lore*, The *Riverside Primer* and *First Reader*, *Riverside Prose and Verse*, Longfellow's *Hiawatha*, Kingsley's *Water Babies*, Ruskin's *King of the Golden River*, *Stories of Noah*, Abraham, Joseph, David, Daniel, Jesus, Church's *Stories of the Old World*, Kingsley's *Greek Heroes*, Hawthorne's *Wonder Book* and *Tanglewood Tales*, Robinson Crusoe, Grandfather's Chair, Autobiography of Franklin, Evangeline, Miles Standish, Snow Bound, Scott's *Lady of the Lake*, Lamb's *Tales of Shakespeare*.

The reader may make parallel columns to show how such subjects suggest the lines of biography, history, and, in some cases geography, which is the connecting link between the humanistic and the naturalistic group of studies; one or two instances will serve my purpose and render an extended table unnecessary. There is no literature in our language richer than the Bible stories, at the same time, the biography, history, and geography suggested are exceedingly interesting and important. In our third grade, the stories of Abraham and Joseph opened the way to the early history and geography of the East, Egypt and Palestine. In the fourth grade the stories of the creation, the deluge, and the old Greek myths of the Argonauts, Troy and the adventures of Ulysses gave the start for a history and geography of the ancient world, the Mediterranean sea and its countries, the

art and historic ornament of the Egyptians and Greeks, this history and geography was extended beyond the Pillars of Hercules by the voyages of De Gama, Columbus, Magellan, and all who circumnavigated the globe. Robinson Crusoe had an important place in this study. In later grades, the colonists, the pioneers, and the Boys of '76 correlated with literature of our early period. But I must not lengthen the article to carry out all the parallels. Geography and American history have been completed this year in the seventh grade.

The group of nature studies beginning in the kindergarten also continue through the elementary grades, including natural phenomena, physical forces, leading up to physics, chemistry, astronomy; life in the animal and vegetable kingdoms, geology, mineralogy, and geography. The course of topics by which these studies are pursued are too well known to call for extended description here. All the subjects are studied as much as possible where they are. The life, growth, habits, habitation, distribution, uses, etc., are dwelt upon more than the characteristics. Specimens are studied *alive*, children are most interested in live animals and plants—care, culture, and kindness are emphasized. At this period characteristic traits, stories, and fables come in as a part of the literature; for instance, the hare and the tortoise concluded the study of the rabbit, which was a type of the rodents. While the village blacksmith furnished the ideal for a lesson on the muscles and the physical training exercises.

The formal studies including language-drawing, modeling, painting, and music as means of expression and arithmetic of course occupy important parts of the course. Literature and nature studies furnish all the material necessary. Business and human activities being drawn upon for most of the operations in arithmetic. The environments of business, trade, manufacture, engineering and all the activities of mankind find a close connection with both the humanistic and naturalistic groups. In this we find the basis for the art and manual training courses and the department of domestic economy. This outline of our course is manifestly inadequate to give a comprehensive idea of the scope or the co-ordination of the work of the school of observation and practice. Perhaps at some time the whole scheme may be reduced to a schedule in tabular form which may be seen at a glance.

Teachers College, N. Y., June 25, 1894.

## A Young Crow Indian's Story.

The following is a reduced fac-simile of a story written by a little Crow Indian who is a pupil in Miss Stella M. Belanger's school, Crow agency, Mont. Those who have read THE JOURNAL or THE INSTITUTE in the past year will recognize it as one based on an article in the popular "Child-Life in Other Lands" series. Several letters were received by young Indians who are "marching into civilization" and we cordially thank the writers. (See also the illustrated articles on the Indian industrial school at Carlisle, Pa., pp. 728 and 730.)

*Children of the Desert*  
A desert is dry sandy place.  
The desert of Sahara is in the northern of Africa.  
The arabs who live there are called Bedouins.  
In dry season they live in the valley of the hills  
In the wet season they live on the top of the hills.  
The children of the desert are not fluffy over. Their  
parents do not care very much for them. They are not only  
dirty but also very lazy. They get their first milk  
when are one year old. They eat their meals when they  
are hungry. Their tents are made out of a few palm  
leaves. The boys learn how to throw a lance.  
They learn how to ride a horse and if their father is rich  
each child has a horse. The boys marry when they are  
ten years old and the girls when they are thirteen.

*Delia Deer in the land*  
12 years old

A complete classified index to the advertisements in this issue will be found on page 772. In writing to advertisers it will confer a favor to the publishers to always mention THE JOURNAL.



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1. Everybody knows that no real advance has been made in geographical text-books for twenty years. Methods of teaching have improved, but not books. There has come to be a crying need for a series that shall embody the best methods of the day. It is more difficult to make such a series than would be supposed, because, of course, the methods have to be perfected, simplified, adapted to the requirements of different localities, and furnished with maps and illustrations,—in a word, made available for text-book use.

2. Alex. Everett Frye, who has lectured on Geography all over the country, besides teaching the subject in Normal Schools, laid aside his work as Superintendent of Schools at San Bernardino, Cal., to give his entire time to the preparation of this series. Geography has been his life work, and besides maturing his views through experience as student, teacher, lecturer, and superintendent, he has had the benefit of discussions with the teachers, superintendents, and geographical experts most interested in the subject and best qualified to advise.

3. The school text-book of Geography has become an absurdity. The author of a recent series has said that he, himself, a professional geographer, could not answer half the questions in his books, yet the children in the common schools are required to master them all. Think of this for a moment. Is it not a waste of time and energy? Is it not a positive cruelty?

4. Frye's Geographies break away from the traditional stereotyped model. They are an original departure toward what all thinking teachers demand. They teach more Geography than the prevailing books, but require less memorizing. The author presents the subject right end first, and groups facts intelligently; and, by getting certain ideas firmly lodged in the child's mind, he makes him master of the subject, and at the same time saves him the killing work of memorizing endless details.

5. These books are not eccentric, one-sided, or impractical.

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7. As school Geographies have all been written on the same plan, the competition has of late years been mainly in the details of embellishment. The Geography has come to be a picture-book, and to a great extent the educational value of illustration has been lost sight of. For artistic beauty and excellence, Frye's Geographies challenge comparison with any, but the pictures are all true illustrations. As much pains was spent in selecting them as in writing the text. In particular, the engravers worked almost always from photographs, not from fanciful, offhand sketches. The artist's work was mainly to retouch, group, and decorate the photographs. The author examined over 50,000 photographs, and he saw to it also that the engraver brought out the essential points.

8. Only general merits of the series have been mentioned. There are countless excellences of detail. For these, consult the books themselves.

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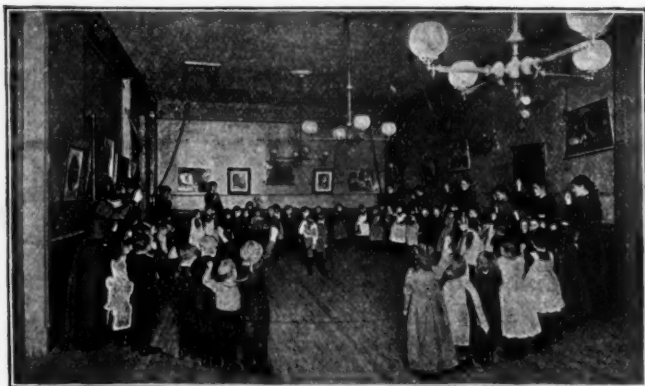
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## The Workingman's School.

NEW YORK CITY.

This school was founded by Professor Felix Adler. Dr. Maximilian Groszmann is the superintendent, and Dr. F. Monteur, the vice-president, both graduates of the school of pedagogy of the University of the City of New York.



A GAME IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

The aim of the school is to contribute to the leavening of the whole lump of school education by means of the same principle which has given birth to the kindergarten, to erect the entire educational superstructure on the kindergarten foundation, and, while varying the methods employed according to the ages of the pupils and the subjects taught, to apply throughout the fundamental rule of "Learning by Doing." This explains why manual training has been recognized in its peculiar value. Manual training there is an *educational principle*, and a methodical device, rather than a new branch, and is employed in all branches of instruction, so far as they permit that.

The pupils of the school are encouraged to do as much as they can for themselves rather than have things done for them. In the natural science lessons they are led to make their own observations, tests, and experiments, to learn about the plants, animals, minerals, and the laws and forces of nature around them. On visits to the fields and forests around the city, to the menageries and museums, to factories and machine shops, which form a part of the regular program, they are brought in direct contact with the living world of nature and industry.

The method followed in instruction has been called by the founder of the school the *Creative Method*, inasmuch as the principles of producing or reproducing the object of knowledge pervades the whole curriculum. The children are led to discover the properties of an object while they toil over it in the effort to make it; or, where that is impossible, to reproduce it in drawing; or, again, where the subject of instruction is remote from the senses, the teacher places definite concrete examples before the mind of the pupil and ascends from these to abstract mental concepts. This applies to the mechanical and art work of the school, the geometry, the natural history, and geography teaching, as well as to the work done in history and literature, essay writing, etc.

Another feature is the attempt to link the different branches of instruction closely together so that they may interact upon one another in a system of progressive education and instruction. Thus the pupils model, in the art room, those forms of leaves which they have previously analyzed under the teacher of botany.

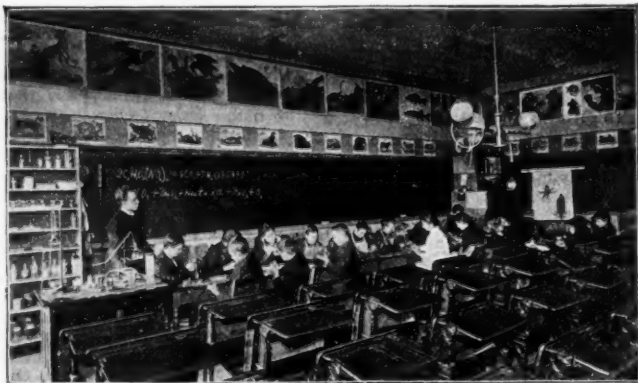


A CLASS IN CLAY MODELING.

The skill they acquire in free-hand drawing and modeling assists them in the geometry and geography work. And certain elementary theorems of mathematics and laws of nature are demonstrated to the eye in the workshop. What information is gathered by the scholars on their excursions is brought out in their essays, the topics of which are never sought outside of the pupils' experience, but which are, with us, one of the principal means of combining all they have learned in school and elsewhere into a unity of conception and thought.

The final aim of these efforts is a complete *co-ordination* of all branches of instruction.

But, as Prof. Adler has put it, "the significance of the school lies not so much in what is taught as in the spirit which pervades the teaching. The main object is to secure among the pupils the right attitude towards knowledge, and it may be worth while, in a word, to indicate what that attitude is supposed to be. In many of our public schools, the attitude towards knowledge is a purely external one. The children are taught to appropriate certain facts as one might appropriate so many dollars and cents. Knowledge is valued because of its utility. The pupils are also incited by artificial incentives to vie with one another, and personal ambition is relied upon as one of the chief motives of intellectual progress. In many of our private schools, on the other hand, the ideal which the instructors seek to realize is what may be called an athletic ideal, the aim being to make the pupils expert in performing difficult intellectual feats, and to cultivate mental efficiency on its own account. The school of the ethical society, does not undervalue knowledge on its useful side, nor does it ignore the importance of mental alertness and efficiency, but it pursues an aim which includes these lower ones, and yet adds to them one that is higher and nobler. Its ideal is simply that of human worth. It seeks to develop a noble humanity in the child, to foster its inner growth, and to cause the whole school life, government, discipline, as well as instruction, to converge to that end. Being, not having, is deemed important, and the pupil is made to feel that whatever he learns or acquires must be turned



A CLASS IN DISSECTION AND MINERALOGY.

to account in the development of character."

There is manual training connected with instruction in art. But the principal value of art is its aesthetic influence upon the children. In their songs their idea of symmetrical and rhythmical development is further emphasized, and finds its completion in direct ethical instruction which aims at giving the child control over his moral powers. The spirit, which pervades the school and finds expression in the relation of the pupils to each other, and to the teachers, in the love and attachment which the children have for their "Alma Mater," is truly refreshing, so that the school has been called by those who visited it, the school of good nature and cheerfulness.

Physical training (gymnastics) forms an essential part of the curriculum. Special attention is given to the physical development of each individual child. All pupils are carefully measured and examined at regular intervals, under the supervision of the school physician, and the teachers are thereby enabled to supplement their psychological study of the individual pupils by the information thus obtained on the physical conditions.

The name "Workingman's School" was originally assumed to indicate that the benefits of the institution should accrue primarily to the children of working people, on the ground that the best education ought immediately to be placed within the reach of the poorest, who stand in the greatest need of it. But, since 1890, a limited number of paying pupils, children of well-to-do parents, have been admitted into the school in order to bring out more clearly the fact that the system there adopted is applicable alike to the rich and the

[CONTINUED ON PAGE 726.]



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[CONTINUED FROM PAGE 724.]

poor, to those who, later on, will obtain college education, and to those who will graduate directly from the school into the active pursuits of life. And further, this step was taken in order that the school might confer on its pupils the benefits which flow from the mingling of social classes, and that it might more nearly resemble a public school in which the distinctions of class are ignored. The Workingman's School aims to be a model public school and to serve as an experimental field in which new methods of education, as they arise, may be tried for the benefit of the entire public school system. This is the function which it aspires to fulfil. It hopes to remain in constant touch with the public schools, to work with them and for them, and for their advantage to try new educational ideas, such as can be tested under more free and favorable conditions by an institution outside of the system than by one which forms a part of it.

## The Catholic School Exhibit.

### CHANGES IN METHODS OF TEACHING.

Among honest teachers there is an earnest wish to get together, to learn from successful example how to do the greatest amount of work at least useless expenditure of energy, with greatest positive results.

In the Catholic school exhibit, lately held in Crystal Palace Hall, there were some features that struck us as being in the right direction, and as being of real assistance in the very important feature of the best methods of presentation of elementary subjects.

In the use of illustrations drawn from every-day topics the exhibit was singularly rich. Most deserving of mention is the fact that very young children *put together* the parts needed in the illustration, where such was feasible. These illustrations were particularly suggestive when applied to definitions of geography.

As we mention geography, it may be the proper place to state that this subject shows great variety in treatment. The use of colored threads played a large part in the development of illustrations. Great variety of wording was perceptible in the phrasing; freedom in the use of *children's words* was a striking feature in the best taught schools.

In United States history, the best modern methods were to be found among the work of select schools, and in some of the parochial classes. The combination or co-ordination of literature and history was generally perceptible. A very salient feature of the United States history was the comparison between the assertions made by Winsor and similar authorities in books prepared to meet the demand for Columbian literature, and that of American authors of accepted worth, whose works have been before the public for some time, and whose assertions, particularly about Columbus, had hitherto been unquestioned.

The use of synoptic tables, prepared by the pupils themselves, has become very general. Summaries prepared in the same way are also largely employed. These indicate original work. The same holds true of the tracings and sketches that many children added to their literary summaries.

Penmanship shows considerable improvement over previous exhibitions.

Practical problems in arithmetic have, to a marked degree, supplanted the old-time form in which abstract numbers played so prominent a part. In girls' schools, the "Bills of Parcels," as the old arithmetics were wont to call shopping accounts, were largely used.

Home-made collections of plants, flowers, words, etc., added to the interest of a few schools; in a few instances, pupils furnished an account of how the collecting had been effected.

In the industrial schools, pupils appear to be well instructed in the handling of material so as to entail the least possible waste. The Catholic protector had a certain number of boys who carried on their trades in the presence of the people. The deviation from mere silent exhibition to actual work was an agreeable surprise.

Perhaps the most progressive feature of the school exhibit is the extensive use of photography. It is surprising to find the unusual lines in which it has been employed, off-hand blackboard sketches; developments of literary or historical periods specially prepared by the teacher, the principles of penmanship—these and a hundred other topics have been reproduced by the pupils and preserved for future reference.

The combination of reading and simple composition is another feature that deserves commendation. It has been carried out in a thoroughly logical manner in a large number of the boys' schools.

There are many other subjects—typewriting, phonography, bookkeeping, geometry, and mensuration, algebra, modern languages, etc., to which we might refer and that would offer matter for interesting discussion or remark, but we have mentioned a sufficient number of subjects to show that the Catholic exhibit deserved attention, and received it, from a large percentage of the earnest teachers of New York and vicinity. Perhaps the most pleasing feature of the entire exhibit was the friendly spirit in which the work was discussed by public school teachers. It was a common thing to see black-robed sisters in earnest discussion

with their trimly dressed companions on the great question of methods and means by which we all seek to become more successful in the great work of making the rough ways smooth and the narrow way wider for the youth of our common country.

I. C. N.

## The School Board's Mistake.

(A Real Incident.)

By E. R. D. MAYNE.

The school board all had gathered at the house of Israel Brown, It was his turn, and that's the way they do it in our town; Their wives had all come with them; that's the custom also here, When there's important business, and they always interfere. The subject for discussion was momentous, serious, great; Regent's examination, as is usual in our state Had just been held, and several of their favorites were turned down; And that is why the board were at the house of Trustee Brown.

So when the call to order came, the business was begun, The president remarking that injustice had been done Malvinay Coon, who every member of the board could say Was 'way up in philosophy and smart at algebra; Likewise Meranday Crandall was a gal, as was well known, With any other in the state could always hold her own, And Liday Hall in jography and grammar knew as much As any gal of her own age and size could know of such.

But that there new professor had declared that they were all Below the mark, when every one had heard Professor Small, When he was here, at divers times with emphasis declare They'd all of them, been "educated" with the greatest care. He wished the board assembled to take up the matter now, And see the wrong was righted, or the thing would raise a row, And that them gals should all be passed, and that the board should say, That each should be rewarded with a Regents' diplomay.

Then up rose Morgan Burdick to address the meeting there; And he was promptly recognized, instanter, by the chair, To speak upon the question that had brought them there that night And sit on that professor and set those three scholars right. "Tis well known, Mr. President," said he, "that in the day Professor Small was here, that things was run a different way; Then boys and gals was 'lowed to sit together as they should; They did it when I went to school.—I think the plan was good.

"It made the time go quicker, and 'twas pleasanter and sich— Sometimes we sot so close you couldn't tell like which was which—I seen you, Mr. President, when we was boys at school, A followin' the custom, often, with your woman, Jule. We larned enough, I think, and maybe there was some to spare, Else I would not be school trustee, nor you be in that cheer. But this here new professor comes around and says it's wrong, Fer boys and gals to set as they been settin' all along."

"Malvinay and Miranday and Lide Hall was spunky like And tried to keep on settin' with their beaus Hank, Tim, and Ike, There is the trouble,—and that's why them gals did not get through; It isn't fair, and, gentlemen, that must be plain to you. And ladies—you all know it's wrong that such a thing can be—I'm sure, in this perticler, that you all will hold with me. I move you, Mr. President, these gals be all allowed Diplomays, as they should be, and the village will be proud.

"The sense of this here meetin' is we wants the good old way— And that the new professor have a leetle less to say." "I seconds that there motion," outspake Trustee Babcock then; "What are we fer? It is our dooty to behave like men. We are the board and we was 'lected fer a sacred trust And we should rule the 'cademy in proper shape or bust—I never in my life heern sich injustice as is here, And it is time that we begun at once to interfere.

"I wants them gals to go ahead, and that man taken down, We don't want no new fangled ways brought into our town— Jest think—if sich a notion, ladies, in our youth prevailed We'd think our constitootions and our freedom was assailed. And any teacher who had tried such games we soon would show, There could be but one ending, and that is—he'd have to go." (Here loud applause broke in upon the speaker and there came From one excited lady—"We ain't havin' no sich game.")

After this interruption, Trustee Babcock spake once more: "I takes no interference from no man, when on the floor, But when the lady of our cheerman has a word to say, I waits till she is done; 'cause women allers has their way. Now I am through, and let us vote as Brother Burdick moved, The thing is right, and furthermore the school will be improved, I moves this here debate is closed, and that a vote be took And that these here perceedin's be recorded in a book.

"There ain't no need consultin' with the ladies what to say, We all comed here instructed by our women to vote—"Yea!" And as they're present, when the vote is put, they may as well Be all allowed to answer "Yea,"—as loud as they can yell." Then rose the president and put the question from the chair. "All you in favor of the motion,—gents, and ladies fair— Shall Malvinay and Miranday and Lide Hall—say "Yea" or "Nay"— Be turned down, or shall each one have a Regent's diplomay?" Then rose one strange discordant yell, and needless 'tis to say That every man and woman, howled in bass or treble "Yea!"

\* \* \* \* \*  
Alas! How prone is man to err, and woman too, I fear. Alas! That it should have to be recorded by me here,— Malvinay, nor Miranday, nor Lide Hall, have to this day, Been granted by the Regents, the much-longed for "Diplomay." For in the whole proceedings was a most stupendous flaw, The board not being familiar with the tenor of the law, And so it makes them hopping mad, if one should ask to look At those misfit proceedings as recorded in the book.



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## Graduating Class of 1894, Indian Industrial School, Carlisle, Pa.

(See Articles on page 730).



Wm. J. Tygar, Shawnee.  
 Susie Metoxen, Oneida.  
 Thos. B. Bear, Sioux.  
 Howard Gansworth, Tuscarora.  
 Flora Campbell, Alaskan.

Siceni Nori, Pueblo.  
 Belinda Archiquette, Oneida.  
 Emmanuel Bellefeuille, Chippewa.  
 Martha Napawat, Kiowa.

Minnie M. Yandell, Bannock.  
 Hugh Sowcea, Pueblo.  
 Ida Warren, Chippewa.  
 Wm. Denomie, Chippewa.  
 Henry Warren, Chippewa.

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#### CONDITIONS.

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2.—Each word must be spelled phonetically.

3.—Each word must be written in the script letter of the Scientific Alphabet (a copy of the script alphabet will accompany the prospectus).

4.—Plurals, variant spellings of a word, and foreign words seldom used in English, and words not found in any of the leading general dictionaries of the language will not be counted.

5.—Lists must be sent us on or before Sept. 30, 1894. Each contestant for either of the above must send 10 cents in postage, for which we send a copy of the 35-cent prospectus of the Dictionary and of the Scientific Alphabet, including script copy.

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## The Education of the Indian.

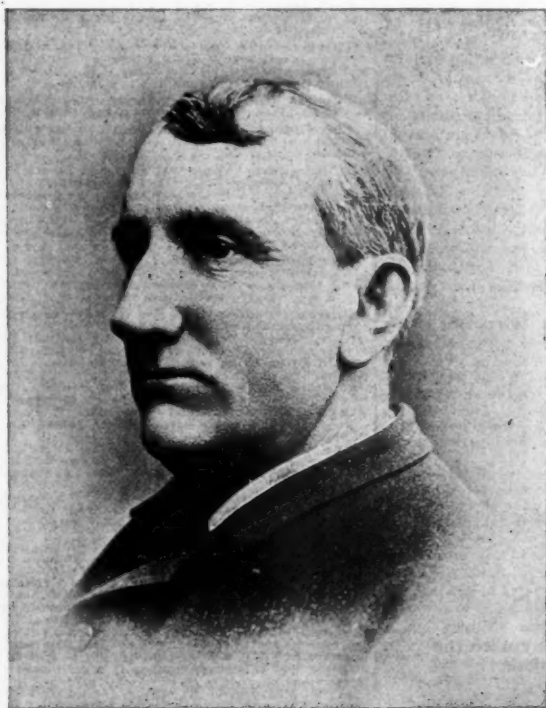
### Industrial School at Carlisle, Pa.

By FLORA L. CAMPBELL (ALASKAN).

The United States Indian Industrial School is situated in the heart of civilized communities near the town of Carlisle, Penn., three of four hours' ride from Philadelphia. It was established in the year 1879 by Capt. R. H. Pratt, who is its superintendent. It occupies thirty acres of land with over twenty buildings some of which have been donated by friends. In connection with the school there are two large farms where the boys are instructed in the cultivation of the land. For the boys there are also carpenter and wagon shops where they can learn the arts taught in these departments.

Beyond is the paint shop where all the wagons are neatly painted and varnished; next is the blacksmith shop, where wagons are made and the horses and mules shod. The uniforms that are worn by the boys are made in the tailor shop. Many other trades are taught. For the girls there is cooking, sewing, hospital and laundry work. They are instructed in various other duties which will be useful to them in the future.

The students attend school half a day; the other half is spent at work.



CAPTAIN R. H. PRATT.

Every spring five hundred pupils are sent out for the summer into the homes of white people where they obtain pay equal to the amount of labor they do. In the fall over one hundred remain for the winter and attend the public schools, working for their board during recreation hours.

Here it is where the Indian youth is brought in contact with his white brother, to learn his ways and by numberless trials he gains the victory of civilization and learns to overcome his own weakness.

Here it is also where he earns his bread by the sweat of his brow and thus gains the joy of independence. He comes to understand the obstacles that prevent the advancement of his race toward civilization and Christianity. He perceives that necessity is the mainspring of exertion and that so long as his race is led and clothed by the government the Indian will not exert brain or muscle.

All self-supporting students who have settled in the East are of those who have spent much of their time in country homes. This seems a sure method of killing the Indian and preserving the man.

After associating with industrious and progressive white people the Indian boy or girl never again feels satisfied to return to a former home of idleness and pauperism. There is always a longing for something far better and nobler than merely existing on the reservation, shut away from the very possibilities of pro-

gress. The Indian youth of to-day decides what the future of his race will be.

Carlisle maintains that the only way to relieve the country of the Indian problem is to break up the tribal relation with all that is carried with it and thus allow the Indian no choice as to whether or not he will continue to be a government's ward. He would then be compelled to work or starve and as human nature is always the same under the same conditions, the "lazy Indian" would soon live only in the past.

#### A LETTER BY HUGH SOWICEA (PUEBLO).

The Carlisle Indian Industrial school is the oldest of its kind, having been founded in the fall of the year 1879, by the friend of Indian education and its present superintendent, Captain Pratt.

The school is beautifully located on a high hill, surrounded by the fertile agricultural fields of the beautiful Cumberland Valley. At present Carlisle has seven hundred students under her care, representing about forty different tribes.

Students who show good conduct in school are allowed to go out into country homes of white neighbors, and work with them side by side. In this way the friends of the school and the students themselves are solving the Indian question, and are marching into civilization and citizenship. The "Outing System" is an excellent means of teaching self-support.

#### The Future of the Indian Student.

By HOWARD E. GANSWORTH (TUSCARORA).

Carlisle is a school where there are about six hundred students, all descendants of the so-called lazy, good-for-nothing Indian. These Indians affected by the race prejudice of four hundred years, are now trying to live above what they have been taught by their fathers, and are trying to prove to the world that they are human beings with minds capable of development.

After glancing over the work, in the industrial department, done by the students, and after listening to their recitations in the school-room we can mark a great difference between the ways of the past and the present. But what will be the future of these young people? Will some of them become stars of their tribe to enlighten the path of the civilization of their people, or will they become worthless paupers, depending on the government for a living as their fathers have long been doing?

An Indian student brought up in the Christian civilization going back to his blankets, the ghost dance, and barbarism! Do we not have so little confidence in him as to believe that he will not stand by what he knows to be right? The Indian has a character, just as a Caucasian and what we would not expect of a Caucasian, we may not expect of an Indian. A careful study of the success and failures of the hundreds of boys and girls already gone out into the world as workers from Carlisle will help us to judge what the future of those will be who are in school now.

We may find Indians as workers in all parts of the United States; in the far away Arizona, we find some Indian tailors or tinsmiths; in Montana, Indian printers and blacksmiths; in Dakota, Indian harness-makers and shoemakers.

In fact, we may go to any state where there are Indians, and we will find them working earnestly at some honorable occupation. We also find them going to higher institutions of learning. Of course we also find some Indians who have made failures, but these are only exceptions. These are the Indians that the government is continually parading before the public, while the earnest, diligent worker who has made a success passes by almost unnoticed. In whatever field of labor the Indian has been placed, he has shown that he possesses the same qualities that bring success, as his white brethren.

Not many years ago the Indians were looked down upon as an inferior people who could never be of any use to the United States, nor even to their own race, but now a change has come and the Indians have proved themselves not only to be good workers in the different industries, but have shown that they are capable of holding responsible positions, as has been testified by people of authority. The time is now approaching when the Indian will prove that "from the lowest depths there is a ladder that reaches to the loftiest heights."

The articles on this page relating to the work of the Carlisle, Pa., Indian industrial school, were written at the request of THE JOURNAL by the only three of this year's graduates remaining at the school.

See also picture of the graduating class of 1894, page 728, and the letter written by a little Crow Indian, p. 722.

To keep ahead of the times in books, apparatus, etc., for school use, consult the advertising pages of the paper, and in writing please mention THE JOURNAL. See Index on page 772.



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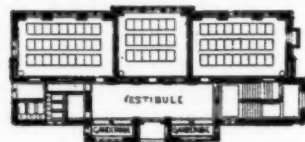
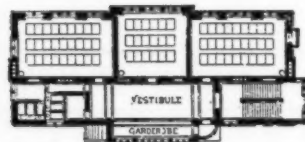
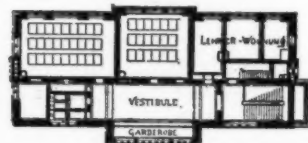
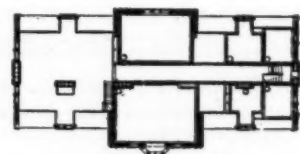


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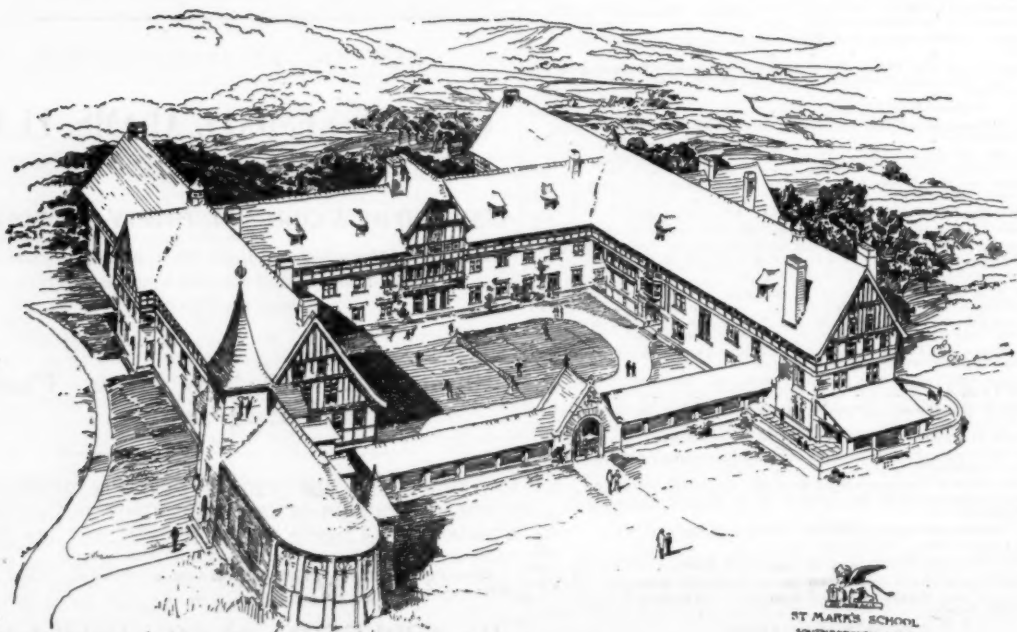
2. School in Switzerland.

(A perspective view of this handsome building appeared in THE JOURNAL a few weeks ago.

2.



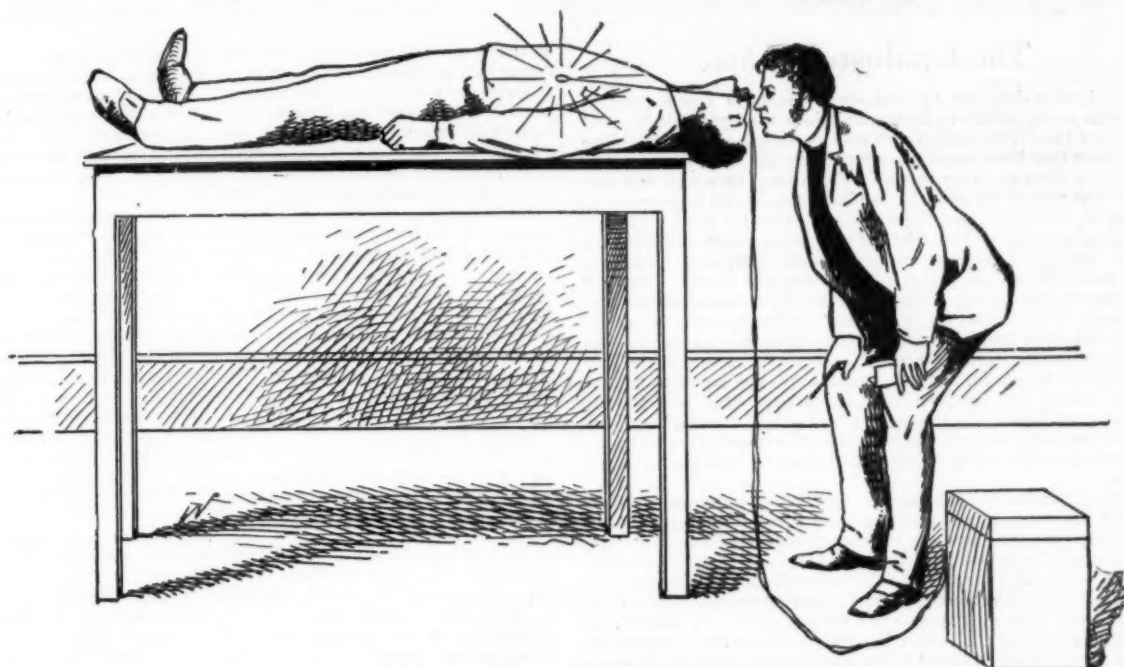
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all that is right, because it is leading to something righter. Examine that graduate's scheme of social organization, before which Bellamy must hide his diminished head, George admit that no tax at all is even better than a single tax, and Spencer become mute. Gaze with that young enthusiast upon his vision of "The New Christianity," so near at hand and so soon to become universal. Is there any gainsaying his positions or that such a consummation must come to pass in the nature of things?

But what does our picture show us? The eager setting out on voyages of discovery and conquest and reform; the resistance of surf and wind; the waves of temptation and disaster rising high and higher; the going down of gallant barques. And where are the girls? Have they gone down for lack of seamanship? Have they ridden the storm in triumph and reached the high seas of success? Surely their brothers and cousins and lovers have not allowed themselves to be outdone in this way! Are they holding back in caution and waiting for the young men to return and teach them how to sail? Or has the artist forgotten them altogether? Probably they have done all the things suggested, but the artist is none the less to blame. He is a misogynist and a pessimist, and graduation day has no use for him—a man of the past, who utterly fails to apprehend Destiny's Drift or any of the great laws that are bringing women to the front and youth to the leadership of affairs.

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## Pedagogical Books of the Past Year.

JULY 1, 1893, TO JUNE 30, 1894.

In times of general business depression, such as the past twelve months have been, it is reasonable to expect that only products for which there is an evident demand are prepared for the market. Thus when we can point with pride to the fact that the past year is unparalleled in history as regards the number of pedagogical books published, the inference is near at hand that at no time has there been among teachers a more general desire to be informed concerning the great problem of education. The quality of the books is another most significant indication of marvelous progress. The following list of important pedagogical books of the year has been prepared with much care, and, it is believed, will receive the attention its value deserves. A few books may have been omitted that might very properly have been mentioned. These omissions, however, are unintentional. Letters were sent to all important American firms who are known to publish pedagogical books. The replies received were carefully read, and all books strictly pedagogical, or having direct bearing upon pedagogics, were entered in the list:

Iles' A Class in Geometry	\$.30	E. L. Kellogg & Co.
Lang's Outlines of Herbart's Pedagogics	.25	"
" Rousseau	.15	"
" Horace Mann	.15	"
" Great Teachers of 4 Centuries	.25	"
Parker's Talks on Pedagogics	1.50	"
Rooper's Object Teaching	.25	"
Rein's Outlines of Pedagogics (Theoretical)	.75	"
Sinclair's First Year at School	.75	"
Morris' Physical Education	1.00	American Book Co.
White's School Management	1.25	"
Blow's Symbolic Education	1.50	Appleton
Davidson's Education of the Greek People	1.50	"
Hinsdale's How to Teach and Study History	1.50	"
Howe's Systematic Science Teaching	1.50	"
Martin's Evolution of the Public School System in the U. S.	1.50	"
Preyer's Mental Development in the Child	1.00	"
Carlisle's Memoirs of Ascham & Arnold	.50	Bardeen

De Graff's School-Room Guide		Bardeen
Paper .50 Cl. 1.50		"
De Guimp's Pestalozzi, His Aim and Work	.50	"
Laurie's Life and Work of Comenius	.50	"
Monroe's Educational Labors of Henry Barnard	.50	"
Page's Theory and Practice of Teaching. Paper 50. Cl. 1.50		"
Rein's Outlines of Pedagogics	1.25	"
Spencer's Education	.50	"
Tate's Philosophy of Education	.50	"
Patrick's Elements of Pedagogics	1.00	Becktold & Co., St Louis
Brooks' Kindergarten Papers		Milton Bradley Co.
Hildreth's Clay Modeling in the School-Room	.25	" " "
Mackenzie's The Kindergarten Black-board		" " "
Poulsson's In the Child's World	2.00	" " "
Weaver's Paper and Scissors in the School-Room	.25	" " "
Blaisdell's How to Teach Physiology	.25	Ginn & Co.
Tompkins' The Philosophy of Teaching	1.25	" "
Bryant's Syllabus of Psychology	.25	S. C. Griggs & Co.
" " Ethics	.25	" " "
Compayre's Psychology Applied to Education	.90	Heath
Henderson's Introduction to the Study of Dependent, Defective, and Delinquent Classes	1.50	"
Hereford's Student's Froebel	.75	"
Herbart's Science of Education, (Trans. from the German by Mr. and Mrs. Felkin)	1.00	"
Lange's Apperception	1.00	"
Rick's Object Lessons and How to Give Them—2 vols.	.90 each	"
Tracy's Psychology of Childhood	.75	"
Methods of Teaching Modern Languages	.90	"
Davis, King & Collier's Report on Governmental Map. For use in Schools	.34	Holt
Heinemann's Froebel's Letters	1.00	Lee & Shepard

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Richards' German School System		Univ. City of N. Y., Sch. of Ped.
" French " "		" " "
Groszmann's Problem of the Co-Ordination of Studies	2.50	" "
Proceedings of the International Congress of Education, 1893	2.50	National Educational Association.

### Three Great Educational Works.

The week ending on Saturday last brought to the editorial desk these three most remarkable pedagogical publications: "*Talks on Pedagogics*" by Col. Francis Wayland Parker; "*Proceedings of the International Congress of Education of the World's Columbian Exposition*," edited by Supt. N. A. Calkins; and Parts I. and II. of Prof. W. Rein's "*Enzyklopädisches Handbuch der Pädagogik*." We can truthfully say that these books represent the best pedagogical thought of the age in which we live. They deserve a prominent place among pedagogical classics and as such will become historical.

The two first named works will, it is believed, attract world-wide attention to the advance that this glorious country of ours has made in pedagogics, and Prof. Rein's encyclopedic manual will evidently become the century's great monument of scientific pedagogics as developed by the disciples of Herbart in the classic land of pedagogics.

We have been accustomed to be directed to Germany for an-

### COL. PARKER'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO SCIENTIFIC PEDAGOGICS

swers to perplexing problems arising in the struggle for the elevation of pedagogics to the rank of a science. No doubt there are excellent reasons why the student should keep an eye on the pedagogic achievements of that country. But what American teachers need most is a close acquaintance with the best American thought on the educational questions of the age. The United States is the only country in the world to-day that has a system of common schools. This fact makes it sufficiently clear that there must be peculiar fundamental differences between our system of pedagogics and that of other countries. Hence the urgency of the need of a thoroughly American treatment of the theory and practice of education. This need is particularly conspicuous in the development of a Co-ordination of Studies—of a system of Concentration, in other words—that will answer the requirements of American education. Aside from a few isolated effects in this direction, mainly in the nature of contributions to educational journals, nothing has as yet been made public that could be recommended to the teachers of our common schools as being especially prepared for their guidance. For these reasons it gives us all the more pleasure to be able to credit Colonel Parker with having placed before our educational workers in his *Talks on Pedagogics: An Outline of the Theory of Concentration*, which is at once the most noteworthy, most thoroughly helpful, and most fascinating pedagogic work ever published in the English language. If we add to this that it is the master work of a pedagogic genius we are simply stating a truth that all unbiased readers of the work will acknowledge.

Col. Parker has been, as he says, "a teacher of little children for nearly forty years," and there are few who have been so lovingly devoted to the study of the nature, ways, and needs of childhood. He modestly calls himself "an average teacher." Would that we could say that! The American schools would then be the ideal educational institutions of the world. The educational ideas of such a man are worth having.

The preface of the work gives a highly interesting account of the way in which the author's idea of Concentration developed. He says that his "first intimation of concentration came from the principles of Delsarte in his doctrine of the reaction of vocal and pantomimic expression upon the mind." Gradually and steadily the main purpose developed itself and each one of the earnest and enthusiastic teachers with whom the Cook County normal school has been blessed caught its spirit and joined "in

(CONTINUED ON PAGE 738.)

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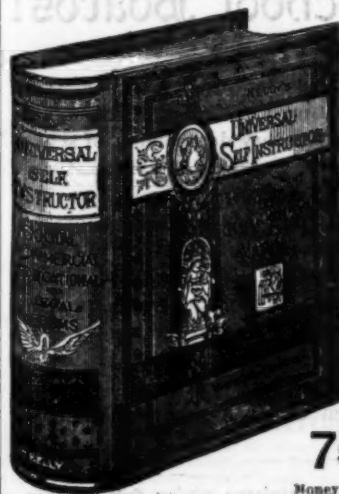
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[CONTINUED FROM PAGE 736.]

the investigation with the utmost zeal and persistence." Col. Parker adds that "The psychology of Herbart, and the doctrine of Concentration enunciated and applied by his disciples, Ziller, Stoy, and Rein, have been a source of inspiration and a guide in the general direction of the work." Fröbel's "sublime idea of the unity of the human spirit" is mentioned as "another never-failing source." Col. Parker and his assistants worked earnestly "to find and apply the truth under the working hypothesis of Concentration." The results of the investigation have made it clear that "the direction is right." Col. Parker is fully justified in stating that "the doctrine of Concentration in itself is a science of education that will absorb the attention of thoughtful teachers for centuries; it contains an ideal that is infinite in its possibilities."



To give a fair outline of the doctrine of Concentration as expounded in "Talks on Pedagogics" we would have to copy the greater part of the book. Any brief statement would at best give an incomplete, if not a misleading idea. The precise definitions of the scope of the proposed studies, the relations in which these are presented, the philosophical basis of the book, all this must be known in order to interpret the idea rightly. A hint may be found in the accompanying chart and this quotation from the book: "The child stands in a center of a circle; around him is the environment of the Universe, man and nature. Everything in its elements touches the child's soul; the child's soul goes out toward everything, reacts upon everything. We must not break or distort the circle if we would have it extend and grow upward in the spiral. The base circle must ever widen, and with it each spiral as it tends upward in its way toward the light and the truth."

"Talks on Pedagogics" may be obtained by addressing the publishers, E. L. Kellogg & Co., New York City. The retail price per copy is \$1.50; special price to teachers, \$1.20; by mail, 12 cents extra.

#### THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF EDUCATION.

The volume of "Proceedings of the International Congress of Education of the World's Columbian Exposition" is perhaps the most remarkable of all educational books ever published. Fifteen department congresses have contributed the results of their deliberation. "Of these departments," as Dr. W. T. Harris, U. S. commissioner of education, in the preface to the volume says: "Those for Higher Education, Secondary, Elementary, School Supervision, Professional Training of Teachers, Rational Psychology, Educational Publications, and Business Education represented what has long been established, and their discussions went largely to explaining and justifying work that is in process of accomplishment. On the other hand the departments of Kindergarten Education, Instruction in Art, Vocal Music, Technological Instruction, Industrial and Manual Instruction, Physical Education, Experimental Psychology in Education, were devoted more especially to setting forth what is new and desirable in education, and urging its adoption into the school system. As a result the educational problems have all been discussed in the light of these two tendencies." Besides the proceedings of these departments there is appended an eminently valuable collection of papers on the Education of Women in Great Britain and her Colonies.

[CONTINUED ON PAGE 740.]

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(CONTINUED ON PAGE 742.)

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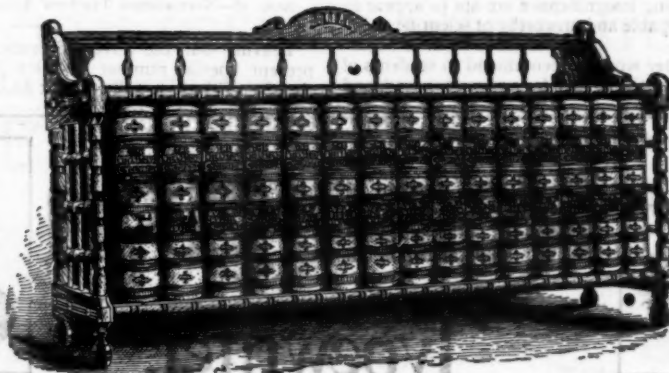
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[CONTINUED FROM PAGE 740.]  
taining to the subjects discussed in them. It is not intended to give a complete survey of historic pedagogics. Hence the student must not be surprised if he finds no special articles in the first two parts—*Abtheilung* to *Association and Reproduktion der Vorstellungen*—on Abelaud, Agricola, Alcuin, Alexander, and others; even Aristotle is omitted.

It is to be regretted also that the school systems of all countries, except Germany, are, "at least for the present," excluded from the scope of the work. Prof. Rein writes that his intention is to give primarily a presentation of the pedagogic work and labor in Germany and the status of pedagogic investigation of the present day, but, he adds, so far as this is at all possible to human labor, this will be done "in an objective-scientific manner which knows itself free from every one-sided and narrow-minded apprehension, particularly in matters relating to religion." This last promise has been fully redeemed in the articles presented in the two parts now before us; and those who know Prof. Rein's pedagogic convictions will be the first to acknowledge it. The names of the contributors to the encyclopedia mentioned above are alone sufficient to give testimony of the broad pedagogic platform on which his work is built. Prof. Dilthey, Prof. Willmann, and Dr. von Sallwürck do not all agree with him on certain points. The latter thinker, for instance, has emphatically stated the reasons why the "*Kulturhistorischen Stufen*" of the Ziller-Rein Herbartians should not be accepted.

Prof. Rein expresses the wish that his encyclopedic handbook of pedagogics may prove "a welcome work of reference," and its literary references "a safe guide." This it certainly will be to all who are familiar with the German language—and we hope that the other wish will also be realized, namely, that it will furnish abundant proof to those who look upon all pedagogic science with contempt that there is a peculiar field of investigation that in worth and reverence is not excelled by any other in any particular.

"If we regard pedagogics," Prof. Rein concludes his introduction from the point of view, that as applied ethics it is destined to form an important part of sociology, we must be convinced of the meaning it gains in the life of the people, even if things lie at its periphery that in their seeming insignificance are apt to appear to the superficial observer incapable and unworthy of scientific treatment.

We do not know of a better work to recommend to students of pedagogics who are familiar with German for a concise, broad, and

authoritative statement of the points involved in the subjects treated in the handbook. The style is not at all heavy. All of the articles we have read are full of vigor and suggestiveness. A reading of the very first article on apologizing—apology in home and school; shall the educator apologize to the child? etc.—is sufficient to convince anyone that the great fault of German scientists, unnecessary heaviness, has been avoided. Those who have read Dr. Lange's work on "Apperception" (translated into English by the Herbart club) will welcome the admirable article by the same writer on the same subject which appears in Part II.\*

\*A translation of this article will appear in "EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS."

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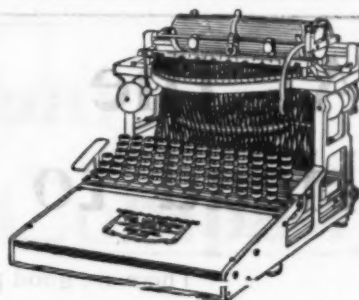
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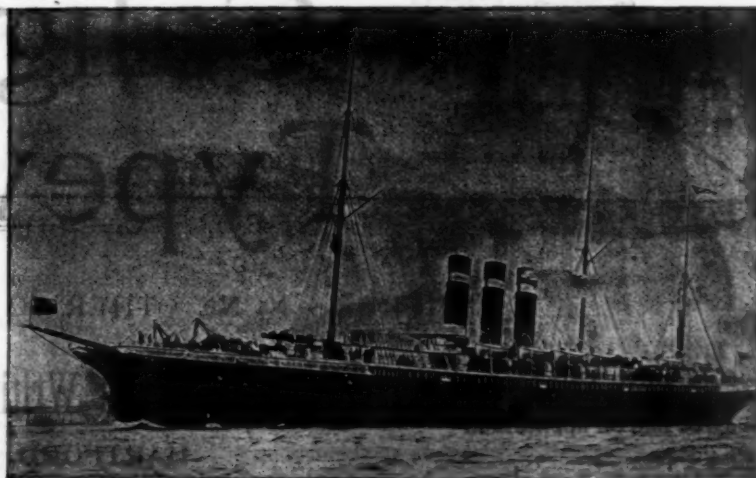
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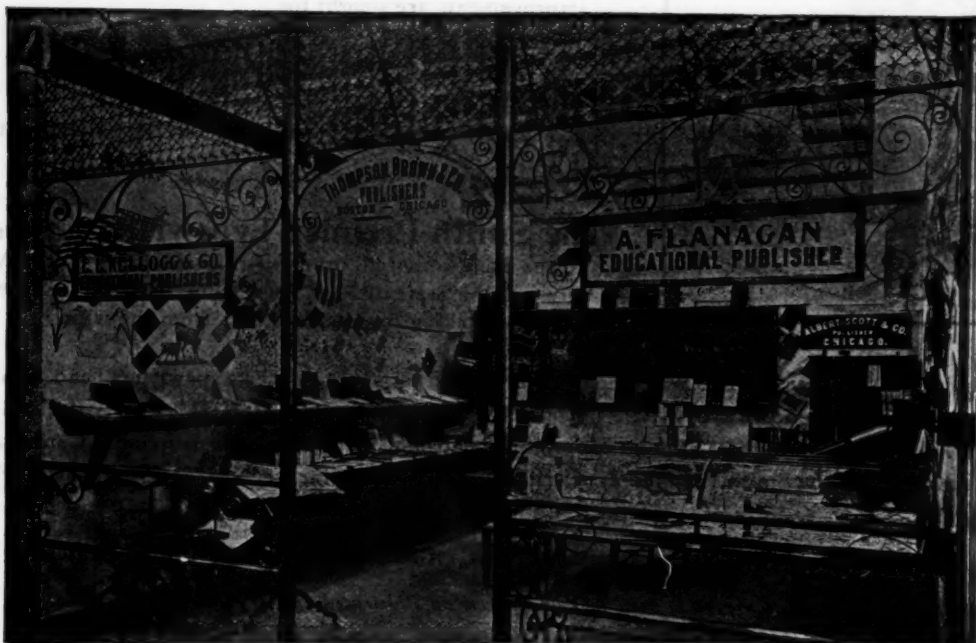
2 Wall Street, NEW YORK.



## Exhibit of E. L. Kellogg &amp; Co.

Many of our readers saw in the great Liberal Arts building at the Columbian exposition the exhibit of educational books and papers, teachers' helps and school apparatus of E. L. Kellogg & Co., shown in the following illustration. It was visited by a very

and methods in special subjects. There were files, too, of the five leading educational papers published by this firm, in whose pages might be traced the history of educational progress of the past twenty years. It was one of the important educative influences of the great exposition, that teachers from every state,

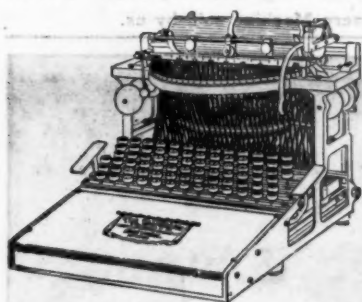


large number of teachers who were both surprised and delighted at the array of helpful books which they found. Carefully arranged according to subjects were more than 200 books on the science of education, psychology, methods of teaching in general,

from city and country, were enabled to see this exhibit and to learn the lesson there presented in that long list of educational books and papers—the steady and rapid growth of a demand for educational literature on the part of the American teacher.

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## Editorial Notes.

It is *THE JOURNAL'S* pride to cater to a constituency representing the best element in the teaching profession, earnest, child-loving, wide-awake educators who desire to be of greatest usefulness in their positions, and to make genuine progress in their noble calling. Realizing that for them only the best, the most helpful, and most timely is good enough, *THE JOURNAL* has at all times endeavored to supply that which will be most highly valued by them. A review of last year's work in this direction is given on page 700. What the new year will bring is also indicated there.

One word as to the present annual souvenir number. The plan has been to present live articles showing the educational trend of the past year, the problems that have evolved and the solutions that are proposed by some of the leading thinkers in the profession. The first part of this remarkable symposium discusses the theory of teaching that has come to the front and takes up the questions that the practice of the incoming school year must face and bring to a successful ending. This is followed by sketches of the practice of a few of the progressive schools of the country showing what a teachers' training school, a university school of pedagogy, a school covering all departments from the kindergarten to the high school, a school devoted to the civilization of the Indian, and a parochial school system, are doing to solve the great problem of education. One of the latter articles shows more particularly how the idea of concentration is being applied in the primary school.

The pictures of school-buildings give an idea of the progress that has been made in school architecture.

From the list of pedagogical books published in the past year, followed by special articles on the three most recent and most important contributions to pedagogical literature, one can see that the year 1893-94 has truly been a year of remarkable educational activity, and has brought the teaching profession a good deal nearer to the goal that it must attain to command the dignity in the eyes of the public that it fully deserves.

The timely article on "The Graduates of '94" the interesting letters printed under correspondence, the incident from school life described in "The School Board's Mistake," the enjoyable and instructive story of "A Case of Discipline," the finely illustrated reviews of some of the best of the most recent literary productions, particularly also the suggestive paragraphs and articles on pp. 697 to 704, and "last but not least" the valuable information offered in the advertising pages, make this issue of *THE*

*JOURNAL* a work which its editors and publishers have every reason to believe will be found of surpassing value to teachers, advertisers and all interested in watching the progress of one common school system. No pains have been spared to make it truly and comprehensively represent what it undertakes to represent, viz. the present status and trend of popular education in the United States.

If the educational journals of this country had done nothing else besides compelling teachers to make education a subject of thought and study, they have not been published in vain. One who could justly write the history of the attempts to publish educational journals would do a great service. They have usually, not always, been the voice of one in the wilderness crying, Make straighter the paths of education.

There have been, roughly speaking, about fifty years of educational journalism in America; the attempt was to express some truth relating to education; there was a latent feeling that demanded expression that education was a far more important subject than the public, or even the teacher, would allow; there was a consciousness that something was due the children that they did not get; there was later on a conception of law in the mental unfolding and of a definite relation between this and the art of teaching.

Enormous efforts have been required to dislodge the idea that while scholarship was needed to give power to the teacher, a knowledge of the child was needed to give direction to this power. Nor is this work wholly done up to the present time. It may be roughly said that educational journalism has had for its object mainly the placing of child-growth in scientific aspects before the teacher.

Dr. James A. McLellan who had consented to contribute to the Herbartian symposium an article on the "Ethical Bearings of Literature Study" was unfortunately taken ill. He has been invited to deliver an address on the same subject before the N. E. A. meeting, at Asbury Park.

A happy and restful vacation to all the hard-worked tollers in the school-room.

### Opening of the Mountain House, Cresson Springs, and Stopping of All Express Trains at Cresson.

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## Correspondence.

### A General Mixture.

A teachers' institute was to convene at ———, and I was told to put down what I heard. There were many earnest efforts on the part of the conductors to press precious pedagogic information into the heads of the teachers, and as earnest an effort on the part of numerous ladies to get and give other information that to them was much more attractive than his kind. The conductor took the platform and called for attention. He began: "The teacher must think of his pupils as" —

"Susie Frost has got a new beau." These words were whispered by a young lady near me as a young gentleman and lady entered at that moment; they got considerable more attention than the conductor. I jotted down these utterances as fast as I could.

"Let him ask himself" —

"What a lovely bonnet," said another at my right. I turned a moment to let my eye take it in and sure enough it was quite ravishing; I determined however, to keep the other eye on the conductor. Just then two girls back of me began a conversation (taking notes too) about their journey. I tried to get some of that, for it was quite exciting.

"He must insist upon and obtain parental co" —

"I don't care if he never comes around again." These words came over my shoulder. I turned to catch a little glimpse of the petulant one and in doing so lost the next sentences. Just then several more came in and the conductor waited for the confusion to subside. While doing so a buzz of voices arose. "Her overskirt is very" — "Who came with her?" "Such a lovely" — "I don't think much of him" — "He's a book agent." "When is she to be" — "Which is the commissioner?" "Homely as a hedge fence." "Where are you staying?" Here the conductor called for silence and I resolutely set down a few sentences. "Be careful to lay up no prejudices; you cannot judge by the appearance. Many a boy that is considered a bad boy is so reckoned because he simply differs from others."

Then I resolved to listen and write afterward. All I noticed had pencils and were scribbling; and it seemed to me those who talked the most did the most writing. I wondered if I had not better talk too.

Now there was a recess and then some singing and then some more talking. The best part of my notes taken the first day I

have given above. If you want more I will try to copy them out for you.

T. P. C.

I would like some information as to the credit system which is used for scholarship and deportment.

M. E. H.

The credit system is out of date. It was used extensively and still is, in old-fashioned schools, as an artificial incentive to induce children to do work for which they saw no other sufficient reason. Usually ten "marks" or "credits" (represented in the class book by the number 10) were set against a pupil's name for each perfect recitation, 7 or 8 for every fair, and 5 for every poor lesson, while a failure was denoted by an oblique cross or a cipher. At the end of the week or month each pupil's credits were counted up and a "merit roll" was made up in which the best students were named at the top and the rest in the order of their success in amassing "fictitious wealth" in the shape of credits.

Nowadays, pupils are supposed to be interested in their work, and to do it well because they are interested and from motives of taste and duty. Excellent teachers have no use for the credit system. We congratulate you on having grown up out of hearing of it.

July 10-13.—N. E. A. meets at Asbury Park, N. J. One fare for round trip.

The new summer time table of the train service of the West Shore railroad has just been issued and will take effect Sunday, June 24. It is greatly improved over former years, many stops having been done away with on express trains and additional suburban service added. The following is a synopsis of what the principal changes are: A new night train for sleeping-car passengers only, leaving New York at 7.35 P. M. and arriving at Buffalo at 7.40 A. M., has been placed in service. The popular special half-holiday train leaving New York at 1 P. M. and arriving in the heart of the Catskill mountains in time for dinner. A train on Sunday morning, with sleeping car, leaving New York at 3.15 A. M., which can be occupied any time after 9 P. M., arriving in the Catskills in time for breakfast. Three fast express trains, with drawing-room cars, running to the Catskill mountains, Saratoga, and Lake George, leaving New York respectively at 10.45 A. M., 11.20 A. M., and 3.25 P. M. Another peculiar feature is the through drawing-room car service inaugurated with the Pennsylvania railroad between Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Long Branch to Catskill mountain resorts, Saratoga, and Lake George.

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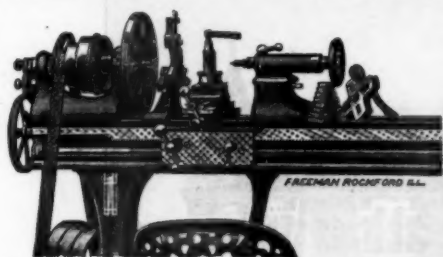
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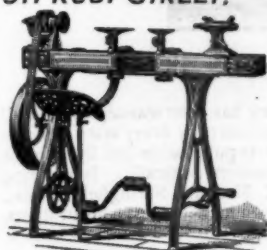
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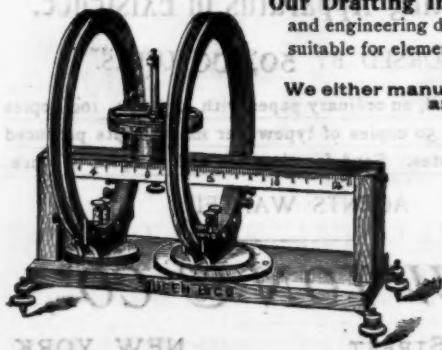
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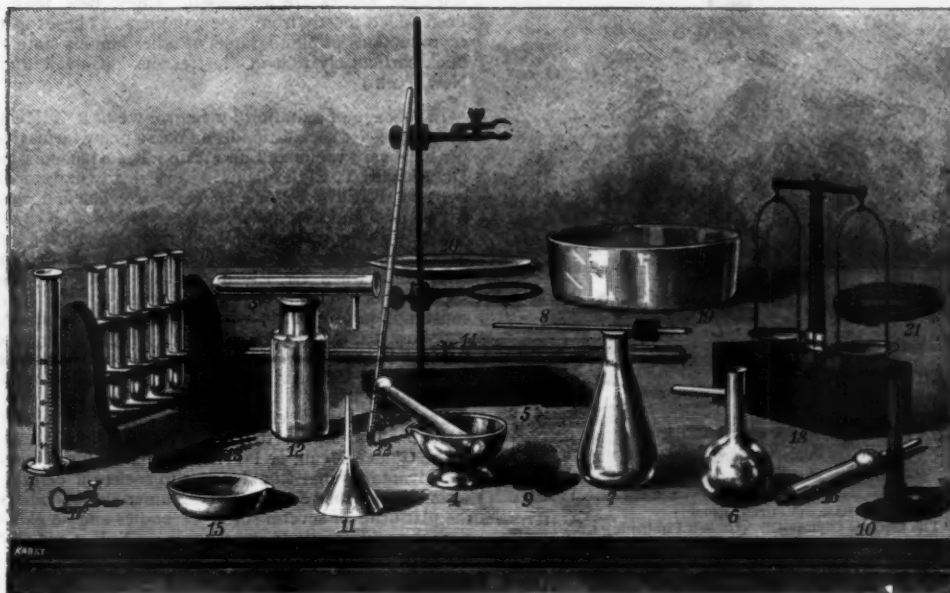




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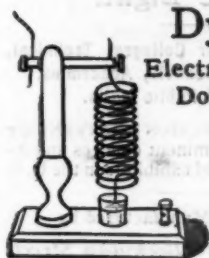
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## New Books.

When a book has gone through twenty editions as has *The Gods of Olympus*, by Dr. A. H. Petiscus, one may be sure that it possesses uncommon merit. The twentieth edition of this work,



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From "The Gods of Olympus." (Cassell Publishing Co.)

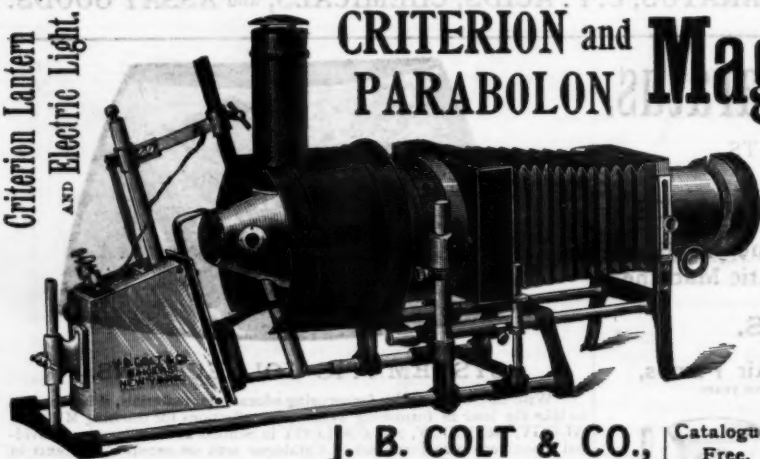
translated and edited by Katherine A. Raleigh, with a preface by Jane E. Harrison, has recently been published. In the English. Dr. Petiscus' book has been freely dealt with; his occasional lapses into mere hypothesis have been excised, long passages have been condensed and quotations from German poets have been replaced by extracts from English writers, as being of more interest to English readers. The manual in its English form, is

addressed to three classes of readers: (1) The students who wish enough knowledge of mythology for a general education; (2) those who desire to go a step further and study the actual form, literary and artistic, that these myths took in classical days and for this purpose they must look up references to classical poets, reading the passages carefully in the original or the best translations, and studying vases, etc.; (3) those who wish to know the origin of things mythological to whom references to modern scientific writers are addressed. Eight new illustrations have been added mostly from vase paintings. These together with the reproductions of photographs of other famous statuary make the book particularly rich in illustrations. (Cassell Publishing Co., New York.)

In this age of agitation for reform we hear a great deal about socialism; yet socialistic ideas take so many forms that most people have very vague and uncertain ideas what socialism really is. Dr. Richard T. Ely explains it very clearly and impartially in his book on *Socialism and Social Reform*. The first part of the book is historical and descriptive, and is devoted to an exposition of the progress and nature of socialism, making plain the differences existing among the various schools. The work becomes intensely interesting when Dr. Ely in Part II. shows the possibilities of socialism as a scheme of production and for the distribution and consumption of wealth; what it might do for art and literature and how it might increase the collective happiness of mankind. Perhaps the most satisfactory chapters to the average reader are those in Part III., devoted to pointing out the dangers and weaknesses of socialism. The argument here is especially strong and the entire discussion clearly indicates the valid objections to the system. The author then sums up in Part IV. what he calls "The Golden Mean, or Practical Social Reform," and points out the advantages that would result to society if certain features of socialistic reform were adopted. Numerous appendices containing the platforms of several socialistic bodies and an exhaustive bibliography add greatly to the volume. (T. Y. Crowell & Co., Boston and New York. Cloth \$1.50.)

The principle of "Learning by doing" of Comenius is practically applied in *The Word Builder*, an illustrated spelling-book by A. J. Beitzel, A. M., designed for use in primary, intermediate and grammar grades. The teaching in this book begins with the simplest words, and, in a series of progressive and carefully graded

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The faculty of presenting science in a simple way so that it can be understood and enjoyed by the children is certainly possessed to a remarkable degree by Fanny D. Bergen, the author of *Glimpses at the Plant World*. Our young friends who have become familiar with flowers and love them, will be able to add much to their knowledge of them from these pages. The author chooses attractive titles, such as the plant which makes bread rise, what is mould? some flowerless plants, frog-spit, a garden in the sea, a plant in armor, the linen plant, a bumble-bee in a lion's mouth, a night-blooming flower, plumed or feathered seeds, etc. The illustrations are numerous and very attractive. (Ginn & Co., Boston.)



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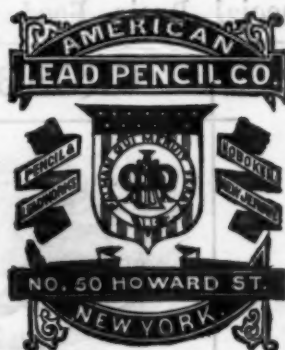
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They are brave, loyal, industrious, persevering, liberty-loving. Though their country is small it has played a prominent part in the history of the world. The Dutch republic was an example

for our Revolutionary forefathers, and, although we owe much to France, there is no doubt Holland furnished the founders of our government some valuable ideas. William Elliot Griffis has told the story of this interesting country for American boys and girls in a volume entitled *Brave Little Holland, and What She Taught Us*. It is the fruit of years of study of Dutch history and institutions during which he had access to many original documents. Furthermore the author describes the physical features of the country, and tells how the people struggled to preserve their land from the encroachments of the sea. The narrative is so interesting and well told that it will not be necessary to urge any youth of healthy taste to read it. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston and New York.)

The scene of the story entitled *The New Minister*, by Kenneth Paul, is laid in a city a few miles from New York. A young theological student is called to the pastorate of an old and wealthy church and the narrative concerns his trials and triumphs there. The aim of the author has been to record "the development of a plastic mind and soul under the pressure of ecclesiastical surroundings which are peculiarly representative of the genius of our democratic form of government." The task has been performed with skill and faithfulness. Those who are familiar with the inside history of churches will recognize the truthfulness of the picture. The book cannot fail to be of value to other ministers and other churches where the forces at work are not at all times harmonious. (A. S. Barnes & Co., New York. \$1.00.)

If any one living can claim the title of a bird-lover it is Olive Thorne Miller. For years the readers of the magazines have been familiar with her descriptions of birds and their ways, drawn from patient observation of her feathered friends. She is a genuine enthusiast in bird study; hence what she writes about them has a brightness and a freshness all her own. Her most recent book is entitled *A Bird-Lover in the West*. In this she has much to say about the winged inhabitants of Colorado, Utah, and southern Ohio. She has been accustomed to sit for hours in solitary places discovering the birds' secrets and drinking in the beauties of nature. Their habits are described with almost a personal interest in their domestic and other affairs, and there is the proper setting of rugged hills, green landscapes, and purling brooks. It is impossible in a few words to give an idea of the charm of this book; the style is easy and clear as crystal. It will make good vacation reading for teachers. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston and New York.)

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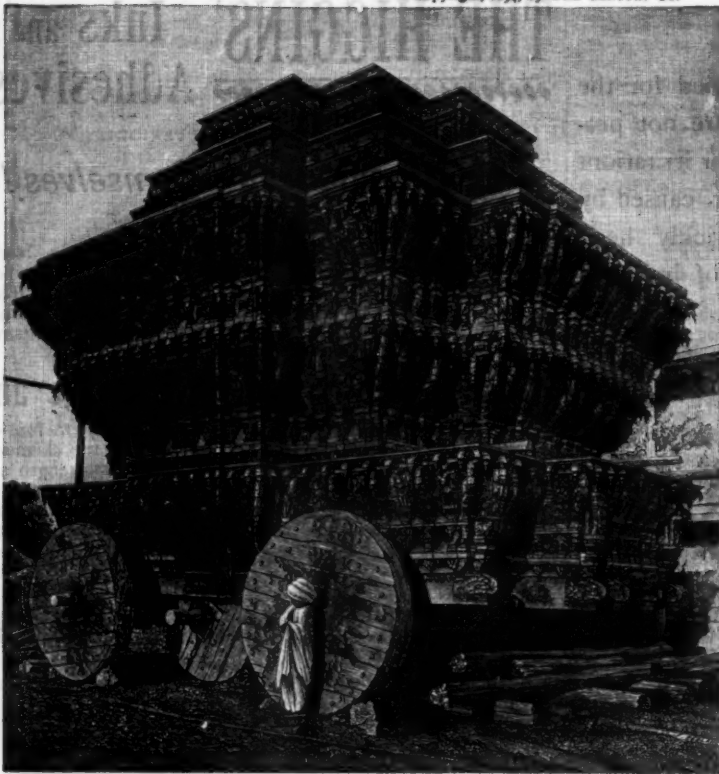
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TEMPLE CAR, SOUTHERN INDIA.  
From *The Century Magazine*.

It is impossible in short space even to mention all the principal features of the volume of the *Century Magazine* extending from November, 1893, to April, 1894. The editors have drawn from the productions of the best writers and artists of the day to brighten and adorn their pages, making the volume a storehouse of high-class fiction, poetry, biography, travel, history, etc. It contains much new and important matter concerning Napoleon's exile at St. Helena; memoirs and letters of Edwin Booth, articles by Lowell, several illustrated articles on music, Mark Twain's "Pudd'nhead Wilson," finance and political reform, Old Dutch Masters, besides numerous other articles on miscellaneous subjects. The poetry includes the best of the recent productions of such writers as Stoddard, Gilder, Aldrich, Scollard, Edith M. Thomas, Margaret J. Preston, Ella Wheeler Wilcox, Frank Dempster Sherman, and others almost as well known. There are very few books published in which more time, money, and brains have been spent than a bound volume of the *Century*. No library is complete without it; it deserves a prominent place in the home and school. (The Century Co., New York.)

The high value of *White's New Course in Art Instruction* is due to the fact that it is not the result of any one person's thought, but the ideas of many, who, starting at widely separated points and working individually along different lines, arrived simultaneously at the same conclusions. Its plan is based upon the entire subject of art instruction, and its method is determined by the laws of mind, upon which depend all correct principles of teaching. Its aim is to acquaint pupils with the rudiments of all kinds of drawing included in the two departments, mechanical and freehand, the one underlying all the industrial arts, and the other all the fine arts; also not only to foster love for the beautiful, but to develop skill, power, and perception of the beautiful through practice. The grammar course includes measurement, geometry, working drawing, development, color, historic ornament, botanical design, paper cutting, and wood and object drawing. It would be hard to name a profession or calling in which a knowledge of these subjects will not be to a certain degree useful, aside from the great advantage that comes from having a cultivated taste. The children of the public schools should therefore be given the advantage of at least an elementary training in art. We know of no better or more logically arranged course than this. The *Manual of the Fifth Year Grade*, which we have before us is finely illustrated with diagrams, facsimiles of blackboard drawings, etc. (American

Book Co., New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago. 50 cents.)

The purpose of Prof. John R. Commons' book on *Social Reforms and the Church* is to rouse the church to its duty in grappling with the evils of the day. He is himself a church member, but he is not blinded to the faults of the church, and he does not withhold the scourge of criticism. It is not negative criticism but practical and positive and constructive. From the thesis that "Christianity is the cause of our social problems" he deduces the arguments that the church if it is to represent the cause of Christ it must instantly grapple with the social ills of the day. Marriage and divorce, intemperance, crime, pauperism and poverty, wealth and luxury, the relations of labor and capital, all come under the great complex laws which regulate the duties of man and therefore are of equal importance with the more distinctively religious functions of the church as expressed in the worship of God. He arraigns ministers for their ignorance of sociology and penology and claims that they should devote at least half of their time to the science of social ethics. He is earnest and logical and fortifies the positions he takes with facts. (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York and Boston. Cloth, 75 cents.)

Prof. John Howard Appleton in *Beginner's Hand-Book of Chemistry* has described principally the non-metals, as it is believed to be the verdict of authors and teachers of experience that these best present the fundamental facts and principles of the science, and they do it in connection with familiar phenomena. The object of the author was to prepare a book for the general reader, without sacrificing any scientific fact. The arrangement of the book is after the following plan: After

the introductory chapters, which present the general principles of chemical action, the chief non-metals are treated in scientific order as follows: the *monads*, hydrogen, chlorine, bromine, iodine, and fluorine; then the *dyads*, oxygen and sulphur; next the *triads*, boron, nitrogen, phosphorus; finally the *tetrads*, carbon, and silicon, thus including the four great groups into which the non-metals are arranged. There is considerable matter connected with the history of the science, together with biographies of prominent chemists, which will help to retain the interest of the reader. Most of the experiments described are those that may be performed by any one with reasonable skill. The reading references are for those who wish to make a more thorough study of the science. (Hunt & Eaton, New York. \$1.25.)

One of the most important books in a valuable series—the International Education series—is *How to Study and Teach History*, with particular reference to the history of the United States, by B. A. Hinsdale, Ph. D., LL. D., professor of the science and art of teaching in the University of Michigan. The author's aim in writing the book was practical—to help students and teachers who will read it with attention. No effort, however, is made to

(CONTINUED ON PAGE 758.)



AN INCIDENT OF WASHINGTON'S RETURN.  
From "Our Country's History." (American Book Co.)



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 Be not the first by whom the new is tried  
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CANUTE'S LESSON TO HIS COURTIER.

tell the teacher just what he shall teach and just how he shall teach it. The aim is rather to state the uses of history, to define in a general way its field, to present and illustrate criteria for the choice of facts, to emphasize the organization of facts with reference to the three principles of association, to indicate sources of information, to describe the qualifications of the teacher, and to illustrate causation and the grouping of facts by drawing the outlines of some important chapters of American history. Dr. Harris, the editor of the series, says in his preface: "In the work of Dr. Hinsdale before us the reader will find the safe guidance of an author who honors and appreciates at their true value the two factors in history, the material and the spiritual. The teacher will derive essential assistance from the hints which crowd its pages." (D. Appleton & Co., New York.)

*The Special Kinesiology of Educational Gymnastics* is the title of the latest edition of Baron Nils Posse's book on physical culture. The previous editions of his *Swedish System of Educational Gymnastics* having been exhausted, and a new edition demanded, the author has taken the opportunity to completely revise and enlarge it, making it the most complete and practical treatise on educational gymnastics in the English language. Although the title is changed the basis of the work is the Swedish system, which the author holds must be the foundation of all rational gymnastics, "since, to-day, it is the only system whose details have been elucidated by and derived from mechanics, anatomy, physiology, and psychology, and whose theories have survived the scrutiny of scientists all over the world." Teachers in schools, public and private, physicians, athletes, and others interested in the development of an exact science of bodily culture, will find in his work a full exposition of the marvelous progress recently made in this important department of education. The book is very fully illustrated, an analytical chart of the system is given, and by aid of the exemplifications and directions persons of ordinary intelligence can lay out a course of simple exercises for themselves. (Lee & Shepard, Boston. \$3.00.)

*Stories from English History for Young Americans* is really a connected narrative of the most striking events in the history of a great nation. The style is simplicity itself, so that even young children may read the book with interest. Here and there through

the pages, too, will be found some of the most thrilling deeds that have been inspired by great events. The story of how the Britons, the Romans, the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans contended for these islands and blended their blood to make the English people of to-day is one with which every young American should be thoroughly familiar. He should also know how in recent centuries Britain has extended her rule until it covers one-quarter of the land on the globe. This book is finely illustrated. If it were added to the school library it would be one of the most popular books on the list. (Harper & Brothers, New York.)

The series of text-books on Periods of English History is completed with the volume on *Great Britain and Ireland, 1689-1887*, edited by W. Scott Dalglish. This series of histories in periods is designed to facilitate and encourage the study of the subject systematically and thoroughly. The great feature of the problems is the prominence given to the study of the constitution. At the close of the history of each period is a summary of the constitutional changes effected in that time. The special subject of the third volume is the limited monarchy (supremacy of parliament). It has been a time of great changes—the passage of the Bill of Rights, the act of union of England and Scotland, the Catholic relief bill, the municipal reform acts, the corrupt practices act, the adoption of free trade, etc. Noticeable features are the summaries of the chief events of each reign and the lists of short biographies of men of note. The volume is well provided with maps of various campaigns. (T. Nelson & Sons, London, Edinburgh, and New York.)

E. M. Hardinge, the author of *With the Wild Flowers, From Pussy-Willow to Thistle-Down*, thinks that "when one has been compelled to learn that a rose belongs to the phænograms, class dicotyledons, sub-class angiosperms, division polypetalous, and order roaceæ, it does not thereafter smell quite so sweet—Shakespeare to the contrary notwithstanding." Most people who have studied this beautiful science according to the dry-as-dust method will thoroughly agree with him. It has been his aim, therefore, to present the facts in a popular way, so that the young people shall have their interest in their handsome and odorous friends of the field and forest increased rather than diminished. In his descriptions are included about all the prominent plant forms in this latitude. The book has an abundance of well-made illustrations. (The Baker & Taylor Co., New York. \$1.00.)

*The Primary Geography*, by Alex. Everett Frye, has just been published. The principal features of the text are that the aim has been to use language suited to pupils of primary grades; the subject is treated topically—the book holds the earth as a unit before the mind and relates all study to that unit; the underlying principle of the work is comparison, each part—ocean or grand division—is shown in its relation to the whole and to other parts; the text on people centers in child life; plants and animals are studied in their relations to climate and physical features; the various editions of the book present special state texts, so that the pupil can study his own state more thoroughly than the others; a manual of methods for teachers accompanies the series. So far as the pictures are concerned it may be said that they are true to nature because most of them were made from photographs; they supplement the text; they present typical forms, and pains has been taken to make them works of art. The author presents his material in a most effective and scientific way; this book ought to make the pupils in love with this attractive study. (Ginn & Co., Boston. 75 cents.)



THE RIVER MAAS.  
From "Brave Little Holland." (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.,



There are many teachers who will want to make a deeper study of psychology than that indicated in the ordinary text-book. Such should take up a comprehensive work, made by a patient, thorough, and original investigator, like Prof. George Trumbull Ladd, of Yale university. His volume on *Psychology, Descriptive and Explanatory* is the fruit of years of earnest thought and research. In its preparation hundreds of works on psychology have been consulted, besides numerous magazine articles and minor monographs; much material was also drawn from the author's private notes and from experimental sources not accessible in published form. It has been his chief ambition and constant practice to bring his science of mental phenomena to the testing of actual and concrete human life. In the words of the author, the book "designs to give a clear, accurate, and comprehensive picture of the mental life of the individual man; and also to explain this life as it appears in the light of all the resources of modern psychological science, and with the idea of 'development,' as essentially characteristic of this, as it is of all life, constantly kept in mind."

While not intended merely as a text-book it contains much derived from the class-room. It will, however, make an admirable text-book for classes in colleges and other institutions somewhat advanced in the science; while for private students it will furnish an abundance of matter for thought and investigation. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 676 pp. \$4.50)

The discovery and colonization of the Australian colonies forms quite as thrilling a chapter in history as that of America. The story is told with considerable detail in *The History of Australia and New Zealand from 1606 to 1890*, by Alexander Sutherland and George Sutherland. It will be read with interest by Americans as showing other states, in which the English language is spoken, grew from small beginnings to power and influence. The curse of early Australian history was the system of deporting convicts from the British isles. Criminals are not the men to make a state that is strong and virtuous; hence these were protests from the Australians until the practice ceased. Again the struggle with the natives, though perhaps not so severe or so bloody as that of the North American colonists with the Indians, had many similar features. The book has many illustrations, including portraits of the governors and many other prominent men, besides views of the chief towns when they were first settled and pictures of the streets and buildings as they are now. The frontispiece is a portrait of Captain Cook. (Longmans, Green & Co., London and New York.)

It was a somewhat difficult historical subject that Henry Edmund Watts undertook to treat for the Story of the Nations series, viz., *The Christian Recovery of Spain 711-1492 A. D.*, because of the scarcity of historical material concerning this country in English, and because both the Arabic and the Christian writers have strayed many times far from the truth. Now-a-days history is not considered of much value unless it is truthful; but some of the Spanish writers considered its mission fulfilled if they made out a good case for their side, or told the most remarkable tales and legends in an attractive style. It required a high degree of judgment to pick the wheat out of all this chaff and to weave into a connected narrative the history of the several nations that were united to form the Spain of to-day. Nor does the writer confine himself wholly to cold facts; the narrative is varied by the romance, as told in verse, of this romantic land. The

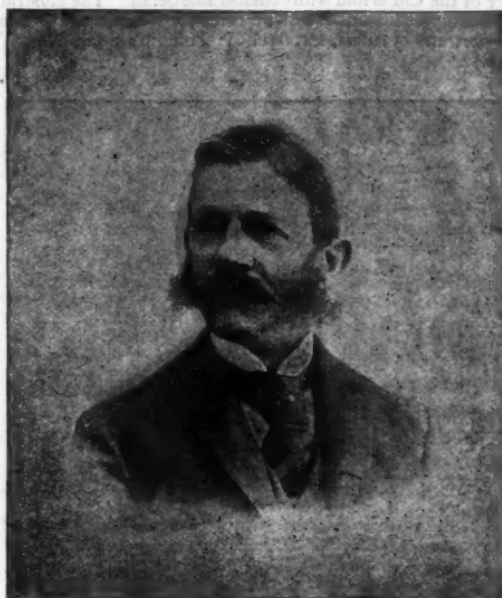
(CONTINUED ON PAGE 760.)



From "Stories from English History."

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WESTMINSTER ABBEY.



G. W. Holden,

President of the Holden Patent Book Cover Co., Springfield, Massachusetts, is the inventor of the "Holden System for Preserving Books," which has proved so valuable the past year in Pennsylvania and elsewhere, as to be specially mentioned in commendation in the last Pennsylvania state report. It has recently been adopted by the school boards of Pittsburg, McKeesport, Uniontown, Buffalo, Syracuse, Niagara Falls, Ellsworth and Rockland, Me., Duluth, Faribault, Moorhead, and Princeton, Minn., and was used last year in nearly all the large cities of Massachusetts, Maine, New Hampshire, and over one hundred city and country school boards in Pennsylvania.

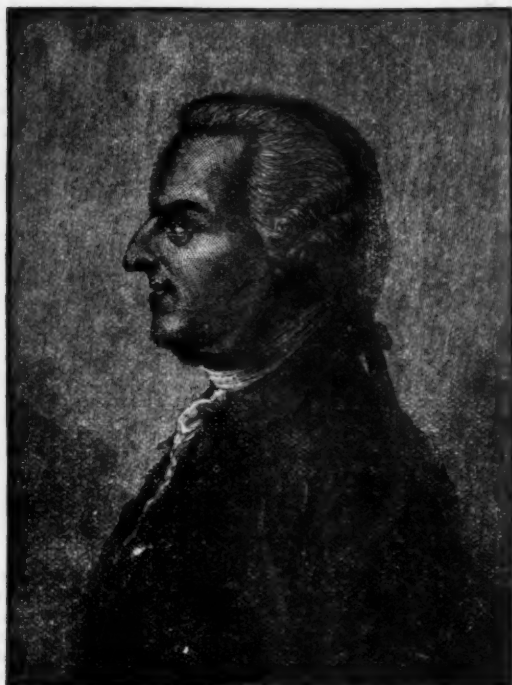
Supt. Hotchkiss, of Meadville, Pa., writes: "One year's experience with your 'System for Preserving Books' has satisfied us that it is a first-class investment." Supt. Boger, of Lebanon, Pa., says the system "gives great satisfaction." Supt. Phillips, of Scranton, adds that "it requires no argument whatever to convince our school board of its great practical value." Many others might be quoted.

The system gives a complete protection to both the outside and inside of the book. There are school-boards in all parts of the country that find it difficult to get the money they consider necessary for the proper equipment of the schools; none, we warrant, have too much. How essential then it is that the funds shall be used economically. In places where the children are provided with free books the school managers should not overlook the claims of such a well-tried scheme as the Holden System for Preserving Books. We advise our readers to send to this company for samples.

Prof. Langdon S. Thompson, of the School of Pedagogy of the University of the City of New York, has spent years in producing a course of instruction in art. In a complete system of education art must occupy its proper place and be co-ordinated with other studies. In Prof. Thompson's *Ideal Course in Elementary Art Instruction*, the subject is considered in relation to other school work, the concentration of studies, and its own logical development. The system of drawing is the result of long and successful experience in teaching this subject in every grade from the lowest primary through all the intermediate grades to the technical school, and in observing the results of experiments, plans, and suggestions. The system is provided with teachers' manuals, which are real and systematic text-books on the different divisions of drawing. The lessons are carefully graded and brought under pedagogical principles. Unusual importance is given to the expression of thought by drawing. The subject is treated comprehensively—that is, inductively and deductively, analytically and synthetically. The Thompson system allows the thinking and experienced teacher much discretion. The subjects of color and manual training are fully and systematically treated, while the aesthetic value of elementary art instruction is recognized. No attempt is made to convert all the pupils into adept designers, draughtsmen, or artists, but all pupils are encouraged and urged to make daily use of drawing in their other school studies. The system, which is now complete, merits the attention of school boards and teachers. It is in use in a large number of cities and towns, in both public and private schools. (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.)



story of the Cid is told with considerable detail. The illustrations show many of the buildings and ruins for which Spain is famous, also portraits of rulers, etc. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)



THOMAS GRAY.

From "Selections from the Poetry and Prose of Thomas Gray."  
(Ginn & Co.)

The poet Gray well illustrates the fact that one need not write much to secure an enduring fame: that it is quality and not quantity that wins the prize in literature. It was Gen. Wolfe who said on the eve of the storming of Quebec he would rather be the author of the "Elegy" than to conquer that formidable fortress. This and the few other poems Gray has left us are of a high quality. They have therefore survived, while numerous volumes of verse have been forgotten. A very attractive volume of this poet's works, entitled *Selections from the Prose and Poetry of Thomas Gray*, has been edited with introduction and notes by William Lyon Phelps, instructor in English at Yale college. It must be remembered that Gray was one of the most elegant letter writers of his day. The volume contains numerous extracts from his correspondence. The frontispiece is a portrait of the poet. (Ginn & Co., Boston.)

## Publishers' Notes.

"Music washes away from the soul the dust of every-day life," says Auerbach. The skillful teacher uses it in school to break the monotony; it is a true soul tonic. Music lovers should examine the list of publications of Oliver Ditson Company. Besides the grand opera melodies, light opera melodies, operatic piano collection, Sabbath-day music, old songs, Sunday anthems, they have books for schools, for teachers, for pupils, Richardson's piano method, and the Famous Classic series, giving the best music for different voices and instruments. A large amount of music that is devotional, sentimental, inspiring, will be found in the books mentioned in another column.

Of course all readers of educational journals have seen the discussions in regard to vertical writing, and doubtless many of them are sufficiently convinced of its desirability to want to try the new system. The American Book Co., with characteristic enterprise, promptly issued the American System of Vertical Writing, in six numbers, the books presenting a series of graceful, elegant, simple, pleasing, perfectly executed vertical script forms. If one wants to acquire the elements of a business education he should get Nos. 8, 9, 10, and 11 of the New Spencerian Copy Books. They contain business forms, and bookkeeping by single and double entry. Some of the most valuable recent books we will mention are White's School Management, Maxwell's First Book in English, Harper and Burgess' Inductive Studies in English Grammar, Guerber's Myths of Greece and Rome, Swinton's U. S. histories, etc.

Look after the physical needs of the children; many boys and girls have gone through life invalids because the schools neglected their duty in this respect. Mr. Flanagan has ready Carl Betz's Popular Gymnastics, or, Outdoor Gymnastics of the Playground, for boys and girls. Carl Betz's physical books are now controlled by him. He makes it his business to supply teachers cheaply and promptly with the best school books and apparatus. We would call attention especially to Ensign's U. S. History Outlines, Cooke's Nature Myths and Stories for Little Children, Giffin's Manuals in Arithmetic, Norse Stories, and the Song Books.

In teaching patriotism it is desirable to make our future citizens acquainted with the history and significance of our flag, there is another way of inspiring a love of country and that is by encouraging the children to read the works of our great authors. This was the purpose of the Riverside Literature series, of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It now comprises seventy-four books of classic prose and verse by such writers as Hawthorne, Holmes, Whittier, Longfellow, Fiske, Warner, Scudder, and others. The Students' Series of Standard Poetry is uniform with Rolfe's Shakespeare. In the Riverside Song Book are 120 classic American poems set to standard music. The catalogue of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., also contains a list of text-books in various departments.

It lends much more interest to a book to be personally acquainted with the one who wrote it. The next best thing is to get an idea of how he looks from his portrait. If the reader will turn to another page he will see a collection of likenesses of men, representing some of the most distinguished types of American scholarship, who have written text-books for Harper & Brothers. Among the books they have produced are Hill's



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Foundations of Rhetoric, Dodge's Introduction to Elementary Practical Biology, Bowne's Principles of Ethics, Davis' Elements of Deductive Logic, Rolfe's Illustrated School Shakespeare, Swinton's Studies in English Literature, Newcomb's Popular Astronomy, Quackenbos' Ancient Literature, Lewis' Latin Dictionaries, and Thayer's Greek New Testament Lexicon. A long list of other standard text-books and works of reference, by these and other well known authors, are described in Harper's Illustrated Catalogue for School and College Text-Books for 1894.

If the teacher has not the means to stock his library with books as well as he would like to, there is one work that he should have by all means, as it is a whole library in itself. It is a good cyclopedia. We know of no better one for most purposes than Chambers, a new and thoroughly revised edition of which has lately been issued by J. B. Lippencott Co. It is in ten large volumes and the price ranges from \$30 to \$45. Nearly a thousand authors have contributed to it and there are more than 3,500 wood engravings and over 100 colored maps. It contains over 30,000 articles, representing 17,560 columns of reading matter and more than 11,000,000 words. There are other reference books which the teacher should, if possible add to his list, including Lippencott's Gazetteer of the World, Worcester's Dictionary (editions prepared especially for the schools), Lippencott's Biographical Dictionary, etc.

It is believed that Bradbury and Emery's Algebra for Beginners, published by Thompson, Brown & Co. is, fitted in a peculiar manner to introduce the learner to this most useful branch of mathematics. Gifford's Elementary Lessons in Physics, to be issued this summer, was prepared to meet the requirements of grammar and high schools. Other books for these schools are Bradbury's Sight Arithmetic and Academic Geometry and Bradbury and Emery's Academic Algebra. It has been proved by actual use that the Duntonian Copy-Books present a system which produces good and elegant handwriting for business and social purposes.

It very often happens that a teacher will want a certain book and will not know where to send for it. In such a case write to the Baker & Taylor Co. They can completely fill at the lowest rates orders for school and miscellaneous books wherever published. Send for their General Catalogue of American School Books, with list and mailing prices, and a telegraphic code, also a topically arranged Library List of Standard Publications selected from the books of all publishers. They make a specialty of supplying public, private, school, and society libraries. Their own list include many valuable text-books.

It is believed that with a color wheel in the hands of a competent teacher, a color top in the possession of each pupil for personal use, and a well selected assortment of colored papers for combinations in folding and cutting, little more will be required for the primary instruction of the coming generation in the mysteries of color combinations. All these materials may be had of Milton Bradley Co., who have also prepared a series of studies of common trees. Teachers should examine In the Child's World, by Emilie Poulsson and Kindergarten Papers, by Angeline Brooks.

Pelham's Outlines of Roman History was planned more particularly to meet the requirements of higher grade students and reading classes. It is admirably adapted to this purpose. Seven Thousand Words Mispronounced, by W. H. P. Phyle, gives an

unusually large number of proper names and words from foreign languages. In the Heroes of the Nations series have recently been issued volumes on Julius Caesar and Cicero. G. P. Putnam's Sons will give information regarding these and other books.

To give the child something to read that is worth remembering while learning the art is the purpose of Norton's Heart of Oak Books. They contain selections from the choicest English literature. Atwood's Complete Graded Arithmetics present a carefully graded course, to begin with the fourth year and continue through the eighth year. Walsh's Mathematics for Common Schools have some special features among which are division into half yearly chapters instead of arrangement by topics; the omission as far as possible of rules and definitions, the great number and variety of problems, the introduction of the elements of algebra and geometry, etc. These and many other valuable books are described in the catalogue of D. C. Heath & Co.

The University series, the American History series, and the Great Educators series, besides many notable separate text-books, have recently been published by Charles Scribner's Sons. One of these books is Aristotle and the Ancient Educational Ideals, by Dr. Thomas Davidson, of which Pres. G. Stanley Hall has said: "I know nothing in English that covers the field of Greek education so well." Murray's Manual of Mythology has forty-five plates on tinted paper, representing more than ninety mythological subjects. In Our Common Birds and How to Know Them John B. Grant describes ninety specimens. Special Examination terms permit the return of books or allow teachers to keep them at introduction price.

The points in favor of Wood's Natural History Readers (Boston School Supply Co.) are that they were written by an eminent scientist, they are carefully graded, and the subjects are classified scientifically. They are written in a fascinating style. The Information Readers represent the most advanced pedagogical thought on the question of supplementary reading material. Sanderson's Ancient and Medieval History and Sanderson's Modern History are bright, vivid, entertaining, and impartial. These are the books for teachers who want definite results in the recitation hour.

What is the use of spending time in learning to speak French when a reading knowledge of it only is necessary. Magill's Reading French Grammar and series of Modern French Authors unlock the stores of literature and science in that language for the student. A thorough reading knowledge of French is rapidly obtained. Brooks' Normal Mathematical books, arithmetics, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, follow normal methods; they are practical, clear, and fully graded. These and many other high-class text-books are fully described in the catalogue of Christopher Sower Co.

In the preparation of the text-books of John E. Potter & Co., the things that have been kept in view are the arousing and quickening of thought, the awakening of curiosity and the interweaving of the science of the subjects with the pupils every-day life. Their geographies are up to date in matter as well as method. The publishers make maps for this and other governments; hence their geographies are based on official data.

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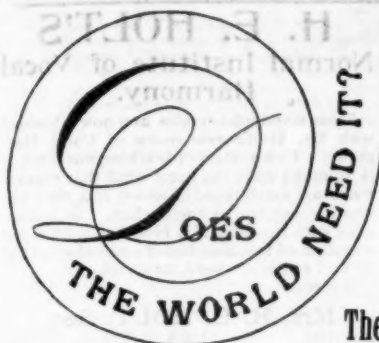
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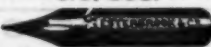
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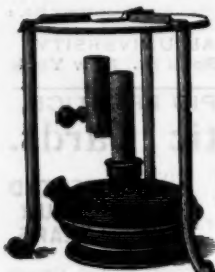
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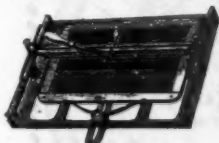
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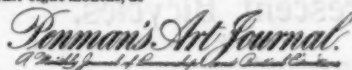
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## The Scientific Alphabet in the "Standard Dictionary."

It is self-evident that a dictionary of the English language must have some way of indicating the pronunciation of words. Whether any particular way is a good way, or the best way, can only be determined by a comprehensive examination of the entire scheme. It is not sufficient to pick out illustrations here and there and to judge the whole system by these; nor is it fair treatment to assume that an old scheme of representing the sounds of the letters is the best, and then to condemn the new simply because it differs from the old. Such treatment would prevent all improvements in all directions.

But what is this new system which is beginning to be used to indicate the pronunciation of words in dictionaries? It is called the "Scientific Alphabet" or the "Standard Phonetic Alphabet." It was prepared by the American Philological Association on the basis of the Roman alphabet, and is given below with a large number of key words, which are all re-spelled in the new way.

### SCIENTIFIC ALFABET

prepared and promulgated by THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, adopted and recommended by THE AMERICAN SPELLING REFORM ASSOCIATION, and used in respelling for pronunciation in the Standard Dictionary.

#### Short Vauels.

i tin city divide busy  
in sitti diuidv bizi  
e pen head ferry defer  
pen hed feri defer  
a at chasm black adds  
at cazm blac ads  
u ask chant comma  
ask chant coma  
o not was actor yacht  
net wex actor yet  
o obey eulogy propose  
obey ylioji propoza  
u but enough national  
but enuf nashunal  
u full book could sugar  
ful bak cud shugur

#### Long Vauels.

i machine eve queen  
moshiu tv cwfa  
e eight fate play prey  
et fet ple pre  
a fare bear where air  
far bar hwar ar  
u arm father calm  
arm fadher cdm  
o nor fall ought laws  
nør føl øt lørz  
o note pour token low  
not pør tøkøn lō  
o butt workers curls  
bør wørkers cørlz  
u rule food rude too  
røl fūd rūd tū

#### Diphthongs.

ai aisle pine sigh eye i  
all pain sal ai al  
au out cow bound bought  
aut cau baund baug  
in few mite duration  
flu mint diurøshun

#### Consonants.

p pet cup pique pies  
pet cøp pic paiz  
t tip taught react lots  
tip tèt riact lōts  
ch chest much matches  
chest much mæchez  
c, k catalogue sceptic kin  
catolog skeepit kin  
f fat laugh physis foe  
fat lāf lāis fō  
th thin through breath  
thin thrū brēth  
s so hiss serene receive  
so his serlin reaviv  
sh she wished ocean  
shī wīshd øshan  
h Ae Hall have height  
hī hāl hav hait  
w we would woman  
wī wūd wumæn  
l live lie league noble  
liv lāi lig nobl  
r rat are correct room  
rāt ār cørcet rōm  
y ye pore union you  
yī yør yūnyun yū  
m me came spam alma  
mī kēm spæm æmz  
n no reign when any  
nō rēn hwen øni  
ng singer tongue young  
singer tung yung

It will be observed that the vowels are arranged in pairs—short and corresponding long. Sixteen of the consonants beginning with "p" are also arranged in pairs—surd and corresponding sonant. As, in a fonetic alphabet, the five old letters, *i, e, a, o, u*, cannot represent the eight short vowel sounds, three new letters were required. Modifications of *a, o, u*, were devised *ø, æ, y*, and assigned to the vowel sounds in *ask, not, but*.

It seemed best to follow the Latin and other languages written in Roman letters in the use of a single sign for a short vowel, and its long, distinguishing them, when great exactness is required, by a diacritical mark. Accordingly the same letters were used for the long vowels with the addition of the macron, which is the usual sign for length. In the case of *i* and *e*, however, the circumflex is used as a duplicate form to avoid too great confusion with the old marked letters *i* and *ē*.

The immense superiority of this arrangement of the vowels over the old is seen at a glance. In the Scientific Alphabet each short vowel is paired with its corresponding long, and all confusion is avoided. In the old way, no short vowel is paired with its corresponding long sound. The short vowel *i* in *tin* is paired with *i* in *fine*, which is a diphthong—the short *ē* in *pen* with *ē* in *me*, which differs from it entirely in quality—*ā* in *at* with *ā* in *fate*, different in quality—*ō* in *not* with *ō* in *no*.

(CONTINUED ON PAGE 770.)

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(CONTINUED FROM PAGE 769.)

different again—*û* in *but* with *û* in *mute*, which is a dithong.

In the old way, two of the four dithongs are represented by single letters and two by combinations. In the Scientific Alphabet it was decided to represent all the dithongs by these letters that enter into their combinations. The spelling of *kaind* for the old word *kind* looks "queer" to those who are first called upon to use it, but the newness or "queerness" wears off with a little use, and that newness, far from being an objection to reforming a thing, is the very aim of reforming it—the old being bad. Besides, by opening the dithongs, we avoid the use of four new letters, which is a great gain in a fonetic alphabet.

I have seen that a critic objects to the use of the scientific pronouncing key in a dictionary, he implying at the same time that there is a good old way which should be followed. This is very far from being the case. Each dictionary, English and American, has its own peculiar way of making vowels and consonants to represent sounds. In one, seven different forms of *a* are marked, six of *e*, five of *i*, and so on. The system is so complicated that few, even of those who have used the dictionary longest and most frequently, can remember the meaning of the signs. Other dictionaries have systems equally complicated. Instead of selecting any of these systems, or inventing a new and complicated system on the old plan, it is a distinct gain that the editors of the "Standard" have adopted the Scientific Alphabet of the Philological Societies as being the easiest to learn, the easiest to remember, and the best in every respect.

One of the words as re-spelled in this alphabet which disturbs a "critic" is the word "call." The vowel sound in this word is the same as in the word "nor." The Scientific Alphabet represents this sound by the letter *æ* and the re-spelled words appear as *C æ l l, n æ r*. If one will examine the words as re-spelled in Webster and Worcester he will at once see which is the most uniform and scientific representation. Attention has been called to other words, as "cider," "earache," "lady," and "idea," evidently for the purpose of showing the "queer" appearance of the re-spelling, *sai'der, fræc, lê'di and ai'd'æ*, but this newness and "queerness" will soon wear off, and to one who will take the trouble to learn this alphabet thoroughly there will come a satisfaction from a scientific accuracy that can be derived from no other present system of representation. O. C. B.

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Its fame is unfurled thro' the civilized world, And savages even in darkness who grope, Are getting some teaching, thro' missions and preaching

Of the virtues far-reaching of *Packer's Tar Soap*.

They've a shining example in one living sample Who tried to be white tho' a black Ethiope. Tho' he couldn't abolish the hue yet the polish He left proved the value of *Packer's Tar Soap*.

And as for the stars, why, I hear that in Mars, So a man said who'd looked thro' the Lick telescope,

He may have been joshing but he vowed they were washing

And that he, looking closer, read *Packer's Tar Soap*.

Over here none refuse it, in Europe they use it. In Rome see them kiss the big toe of the Pope, Now at most people's toes we turn up our noses

But his Holiness washes with *Packer's Tar Soap*.

It is grateful and soothing and quickly improving To cuts, wounds, and bruises or burns from a rope,

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